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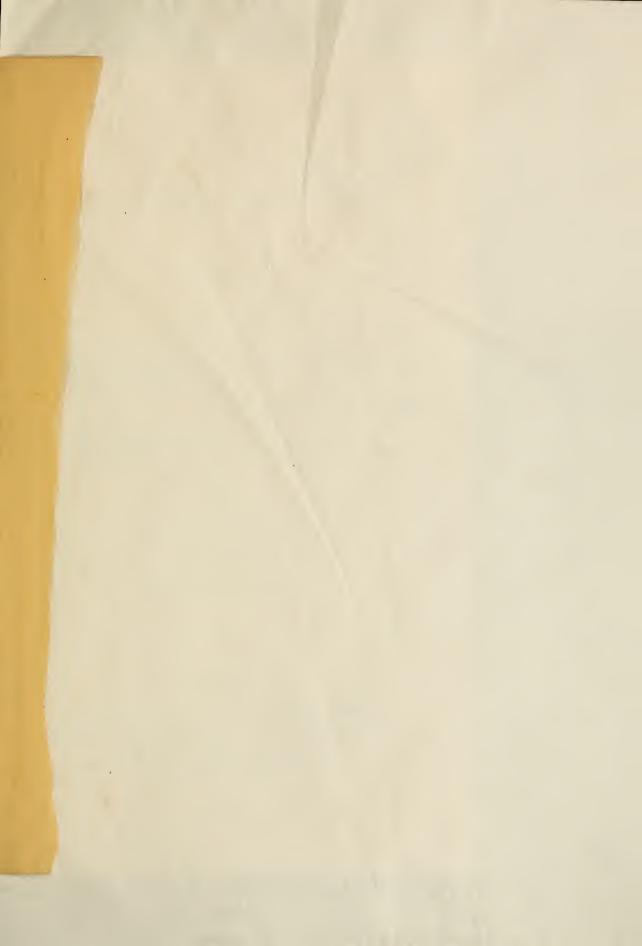
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# SINGING MASTER;

CONTAINING

No. 1.

FIRST LESSONS IN SINGING, AND THE NOTATION OF MUSIC.

No. 2.

RUDIMENTS OF THE SCIENCE OF HARMONY.

No. 3.

THE FIRST CLASS TUNE BOOK.

No. 4.

THE SECOND CLASS TUNE BOOK.

No. 5.

THE HYMN TUNE BOOK.

Fourth Wition.

William Edward Androll

REVISED AND CORRECTED.

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AND THE

#### NOTATION OF MUSIC.

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<sup>\*</sup> In the example given, page 80, of the harmonic minor scale, a note (D  $^{\circ}$ ) is by accident omitted in many of the early copies, and in the following line a (#) is also omitted, which should follow the letter D.

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### PREFACE.

The time is not distant when we may fairly presume the study of Vocal Music will be universally introduced in schools, as one of the means of effecting the object proposed by a good education. Already in Prussia, and indeed in all the German States, a knowledge of music is a sine qua non among the qualifications required of every candidate for the profession of a schoolmaster. In the humblest village-school in Germany, and indeed very generally on the Continent, singing is taught; and in the superior schools, the master is further required to teach his pupils to play upon some musical instrument, and to instruct them in the science of Harmony or Thorough Base.

In this country singing has been introduced with great success in infantschools. It has been shown to be a means of varying, in the most pleasing manner, the usual lessons, and calculated, therefore, not only to relieve the attention when too much fatigued by study, but to create a conviction in the minds of children (which it is not always easy to produce in any other way), that they are sent to school to be made happier as well as wiser. It has also been found a means of impressing the mind with kindly feelings, and of kindling or strengthening just and generous emotions, much more effectual than any mode of persuasion or reproof.

The importance, however, of singing, as a branch of Education in all elementary schools, and of teaching music systematically, with a view of softening the manners, improving the taste, and raising the character of the great body of the people, is not yet fully understood. Let us briefly depict the reasons, moral and physical, why music, but more especially vocal music, should be made the common property of all, including the masses to whom it has hitherto been inaccessible.

The first is, that it would promote the happiness of all. That music is a means of social enjoyment, will be admitted; and this ought to be a sufficient argument to induce us to make an effort to render it a means of enjoyment to the poorest members of the community. After all that

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can be done to meliorate the condition of the working classes, they will have to submit to quite enough of privation, as compared with the more favoured lot of the rich man, without our withholding from them any innocent source of pleasure, which we might, by a little exertion, enable them to command. Vocal music is not only an innocent pleasure, less likely to be carried to a hurtful excess than almost any other, but it has the recommendation of being a cheap amusement, which renders it peculiarly fit to be encouraged among the labouring classes. In this respect, vocal music is superior to instrumental music, while superior also in the power of producing musical effect. If the poor man should regret his inability to purchase costly musical instruments, let him learn that the human voice is in itself the finest instrument in the world. All voices are not, indeed, equally good; but four even indifferent voices heard in correct harmony together, will produce a more perfect effect than any equal number of keyed or stringed instruments, played upon by skilful performers. A party of German peasants, singing together in a cabin, will often make better music than the whole band of the Italian opera. A family of villagers able to spend a winter's evening in singing the glees of Webbe and Calcott, need not sigh for grand piano-fortes, and double-actioned harps. Even in regard to accompaniments, when vocal music is really good, it is almost invariably better without an accompaniment than with it. sounds of different instruments, which seldom assimilate sufficiently with the voice, and prevent its being distinctly heard, distract the ear, and withdraw its attention from the harmony.

The moral influences of music are of two kinds. It has a direct tendency to wean the mind from those pleasures which consist in mere vicious and sensual indulgences, and it has a tendency to bring the heart into a right state, or, in other words, it has a direct and powerful influence upon the disposition and temper.

It is a great error in any system of education, provided for the children of the poor, to conclude that it is no part of the duty of an instructor to teach the means of rational enjoyment. It is time we made the discovery that it is quite out of our power to train any class of men to habits of such unwearied industry, that they shall be content to toil on throughout their lives, without a moment's relaxation, or any attempt to relieve the monotony of their existence by some pleasurable excitement. Pleasurable excitement of some kind is necessary for all: it can be withheld from none: we may determine merely the form which it shall assume. Among the rich it is attainable in a thousand different ways; among

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the poor, it assumes the too common form of intemperance. We have but the choice of two things,—either to provide for the working classes, and enable them to appreciate rational and intellectual amusements, or to allow the people, while in a low moral state, to choose for themselves their own sources of gratification, although they may be such as will be fatal, both to their own well-being, and to the peace and good order of society.

It is said to be dangerous to encourage a taste for music among the working classes, because singing is used as an attraction to public-houses, and other places where young men and young women are often drawn in to their own ruin. Happy would it be for the community if every drunkard in the kingdom could be inspired with a love for music. The young man who is weak enough to give way to habits of intoxication, does so because in drinking he has one source of enjoyment;—render him musical, and he has then two sources of enjoyment; and what can be more certain than that as his taste increases for the more intellectual source of pleasure, the temptation is diminished to that which is merely a vice productive of misery in the end?

But it is not in consequence of a musical education, but of the want of it, that common labourers and mechanics run to hear a comic song, wretchedly sung, in a public-house. If they had been properly taught, they would have had a taste for something better, and in that case, when they left their own homes for the sake of music, would have been probably found among the members of a choral society, preparing, perhaps, for the performance of the Messiah, at some of our great musical festivals. But one great advantage of music is, that it is always enjoyed the most as a home amusement. The quietude of home is much more favourable to the effect of harmony than the noise, bustle, and glare of the theatre or concert-room; and every one may observe that when an individual is raised to the rank of a musician himself, of however humble a grade, he is no longer so easily drawn hither and thither to witness the performances of other people, as before; for it is a curious fact that however sublime those performances may be, musical amateurs like infinitely better to hear their own.

The effect of music in diminishing the temptation to intemperance has been strongly exemplified in the case of the Germans. Forty years ago they were one of the most drunken nations on the face of the earth; but since music has been taught scientifically in the humblest school, they have become, comparatively, remarkable for their sobriety.

In the large sugar-baking houses of the Metropolis, where, on account of the danger, a person given to even occasional habits of intoxication is never trusted, Germans are invariably employed in preference to the English.

It is sometimes urged that a young man who has a talent for singing is apt to be invited too much into company, and is thus led to form habits of dissipation. The remedy is to teach those persons to sing themselves, who, being unable, require to be amused by one who can, and are thus induced to court his society to a prejudicial extent. We may add, that let music be rendered universal, and the Apollos of the public-house, and of the third-rate concert-room, would descend at once to the common level. They would no longer be considered gifted prodigies; and the few only would be followed who, from pre-eminent talent, would be found at the top of the profession, and who could only be heard on great public occasions.

There are many other objections to music which may be treated as belonging, generally, to the class of those which are often inconsiderately urged against every thing good and useful. It used to be contended to be dangerous to teach a child to read, lest he should read improper books; dangerous to teach him to write, lest he should commit forgery. No doubt the danger exists; and it is dangerous to satisfy the wants of hunger and thirst, lest we should become gluttons and wine-bibbers. There is danger even in inculcating habits of prudence and economy, lest they should degenerate into avarice; and we may fairly allow that there is some danger that music may become a ruling passion, too strong for guidance. But what is the value of education, if it be not to teach us the difference between the use and the abuse of that which is good, and to impress upon the mind the lesson, that that which is useful in moderation may be hurtful in excess?

With respect to the direct moral influence of music, we may observe that, although it would be preposterous to contend that music is sufficient to make a bad man a good man, we may safely assert that there never yet was a bad man who would not have been the better for its influence. The reason is, that nature has so ordered it that when the heart is full of evil thoughts and malignant passions, the ear cannot at the same time listen with pleasure even to the simplest melody. Thoroughly to enjoy the effects of good music, it is necessary that the mind should be in harmony with itself, and with all things around it; and hence there is much truth and sound philosophy in the words of Shakspeare:—

"The man that hath no music in himself,
And is not moved with concord of sweet sounds,
Is fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils.
Let not that man be trusted."

If we have a load of care or guilt upon our minds, we cannot sing. Keep the mind in a state the best fitted for the enjoyment of music, and that will be a state in which it will be least of all disposed to yield itself up to the jarring and discordant influences of the evil passions. Hence the secret of the art by which David, 'the sweet singer of Israel,' charmed away the evil spirit from Saul.

It may be observed, however, that the moral effect of cheerful music, as adapted to the daily intercourse of life, is much greater than that of music of a solemn and plaintive character. Solemn anthems are most appropriate to solemn occasions, and nothing can be more suitable when the attention is required to be exclusively fixed on the most serious subjects which can engage human contemplation. But when our object is not exactly that, but to act upon the affections, the music should be of a more joyous character. If we want to render education something more than the teaching of two or three mechanical arts,—if we would educate the feelings,-then our first care should be to make the heart cheerful. If we desire to prevent children from being sullen and quarrelsome, let us beware how we do any thing to throw too deep a gloom over their minds. We ought not to repress, but merely endeavour to keep within bounds, the buoyancy of youthful spirits; for it is not when children are happy that they disagree, or find a pleasure in disturbing the happiness of others. It is often said by the opponents of education that it has failed in the civilizing and humanizing effects expected from it, and there is some truth in the assertion. We cannot look round an ill-conducted charity school, and see the sullen looks and scowling brows we sometimes meet with there, without perceiving there is something wrong in the system pursued, and something dangerous, too, to the peace and welfare of the future community, of which the children of that school will form a part. Much of this prospective evil, music would be calculated to prevent; but it must not be confined to that kind of music which has a tendency to sadden, but that which will make the heart glad.

Let us, above all, beware how we defeat the object of a religious education, and become a party to the irreverent use of sacred words, by allowing only such to be used during Singing Lessons. Instead of

compelling children to sing, at all times and seasons, nothing but religious hymns, as some do, children should only be allowed to sing them when their attention has first been drawn to the serious import of the words to which they are about to give utterance. Otherwise, with the mind wholly engaged upon the time or tune, or upon worldly subjects, instead of worshipping the Almighty,

"We mock him with a solemn sound Upon a thoughtless tongue."

In conclusion, we may notice an argument in favour of vocal music, drawn from physical considerations. It is the opinion of Dr. Rush, and several other eminent physicians, that there are few things so well calculated to keep the lungs in a state of healthful action, and therefore to operate as a preventive to consumption, as singing. The reason why females, more especially than males, fall victims to this disease is, that from their confinement within doors, and sedentary pursuits, the lungs are seldom freely brought into play. Young ladies who are not allowed to run, and put themselves out of breath, or to shout, or laugh loud, on account of the vulgarity of the act, and who rarely speak in a tone of voice above that of a drawing-room whisper, never have the chest fully inflated. The consequence is, that a large portion of each lobe of the lungs lies in a comparatively torpid state, and a stagnation of the fluids, or an insufficient supply of the oxygen of the atmosphere, must often be a pre-disposing cause of tubercles and abscesses in this fatal organ. Public singers have been generally remarked to be long-lived, and one reason (without, however, attaching an undue importance to it) no doubt is, the necessity of taking longer inspirations, and of more fully inflating the lungs, than would have been done but in the exercise of their profession.

To promote the object we have described is the design of the present work. It originally appeared in an experimental form, and having been favourably received, the author has been encouraged to the further task of revision and correction. The work is now re-cast in an improved shape, in which it is hoped it will be found much more perfectly adapted to facilitate the introduction of music into schools than before. If it have any merit, it will be found in the simplicity of the introductory lessons, and of all the airs and arrangements. Only those who, like the author, have undertaken to teach a class of children to sing in parts, can

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form a correct idea what apparently insignificant difficulties may prove insurmountable stumbling-blocks. Compositions of a higher order than those included in this work abound, but they are adapted only for the more advanced student. The present edition, unlike the last, besides the moral songs, will contain a large collection of the most favourite hymn tunes; and the whole work, although complete in one volume, will be sold in separate parts, with a view of promoting the convenience of those who may wish to procure copies of the introductory lessons, or of the songs or hymns, without purchasing the entire book.



## FIRST LESSONS IN SINGING,

AND THE

NOTATION OF MUSIC.



#### FIRST LESSONS IN SINGING.

AND THE

#### NOTATION OF MUSIC.

The first lesson in the art of singing with adult pupils is usually an exercise upon the gamut or scale of sounds, named after the letters—a, b, c, d, e, f, g, and sometimes sung to the Italian syllables—do, re, mi, fa, sol, la, si, do. The pupil is expected to sing every note of the scale correctly; to learn to sustain, diminish, and increase the volume of sound, as well as to read music tolerably at sight, before he attempts any air or melody from which he might derive some gratification.

There are two objections to this course, which render it, if rigidly adhered to, unfit for children, and especially for little children. One is, that it is exceedingly wearisome, and therefore calculated to defeat the object in view, which can only be effectually promoted by inducing a love for the art. Another is, that there are many persons, both old and young, who cannot sing the gamut, and many who never would learn to sing it if the ear and voice were not first exercised upon some more simple and striking melody.

It is often assumed that a person who cannot readily overcome the difficulties of the gamut has no musical ear, and cannot be taught to sing. This is a mistake. The ability to sing through the scale is the test of a certain degree of proficiency, but a person may have a musical ear, and yet not be able to sing

the gamut upon a first trial.

Every ear perfectly formed, and in a healthy state, is a musical ear; by which we mean an ear capable of being taught to distinguish musical sounds; but every ear has not been tutored to the same extent; that is to say, has not been accustomed to listen to the same melodies by which the love of music is first awakened. The difference in musical talent between two children of an equal age is, in ordinary cases, easily explained. One, while an infant in arms, was allowed to cry itself asleep; the other was constantly amused with lively nursery songs. In a similar way we may account for the remarkable difference, in the aptitude for learning singing between the boys of large towns and the boys of country villages. The town boys soon learn, because their ears have been tutored by listening to airs performed by street musicians; but the boys of the village—those at least who spend their days tending sheep, or frightening away birds, and do not even live within the sound of a peal of bells—are seldom found

to have the slightest notion of music, and can only be taught, with extreme difficulty, when upwards of twelve years of age.

In all such cases, it is unwise to begin with the gamut, for the Diatonic scale being an unaccented melody, is often found by a beginner a very troublesome air. The better plan is to choose, for the first lesson, some simple and striking air, calculated to fascinate the ear, and dwell upon the memory. Every professional teacher must have met with adult pupils whom he could not teach to sing through the intervals of the Diatonic scale. This difficulty never would have occurred if the opportunity had been given them, when young, of singing lively tunes in classes.

The facility of teaching children to sing in classes is very great as compared with the plan of teaching them individually. It has been found that a child, who by reason of its timidity or dulness would never learn to sing if taught alone, will, when standing up with others, in a class, gradually get the notion of managing its voice so as to join in with the rest, and, gathering courage to make the attempt, by little and little, will be led on, until it begins to improve as rapidly as need be desired.

The first step in musical education is to teach a child to distinguish, by the ear, one note from another. The second is to express the same sound correctly with the voice, and to sing perfectly in time. If this can be accomplished in childhood (and it can easily be done), the progress made, although it may appear insignificant, is not to be despised, for it is much greater than would be made by many adults within a similar period of time, if music had been entirely neglected by them in their youth. Although there are many persons who do not begin to learn to sing till they are past the age of twenty-one, and succeed, there may almost invariably be discovered a flatness in some of their notes, which proves that the ear has not acquired that extreme sensitiveness to nice gradations of sound, which is only the result of an early cultivation.

To effect the object, lively melodies in which the accents are strongly marked, are better than any other, because the knowledge of the tune, which the ear speedily acquires, enables children to discover more readily, than they would do in any other case, when they are singing the wrong note; and the sounds which the ear can the most easily retain, the voice will the most readily learn to express.

Parents, therefore, who wish their children to be musical, should begin to teach them to sing while in the nursery, or should send them, if only for that purpose, to a well-conducted infant school. At a very tender age they will quickly learn, provided the moral songs or hymns they may be taught be adapted to cheerful tunes, and that the singing lessons be never made too long. Nothing can be better than the plan generally adopted in infant schools, of not always confining the singing to a decided hour, but of employing singing as a means of relieving the attention at intervals, throughout all the lessons of the day. No day should be allowed to pass without practising, more or less, or the voice will never acquire strength, nor improve in quality.

It is very important to guard against the mistake that slow, or serious music, is better adapted for the early lessons of children than music of a cheerful cha-

racter. Many persons imagine that it must be much easier to teach a child a slow tune, because of its apparent simplicity, containing but a few notes, than an air containing comparatively a great number of notes rapidly following each other. Experience, which is the best guide, proves the fact to be directly the reverse. The ear of a child, while dwelling upon a long note, is apt to forget the note which preceded it, or which should follow; and, partly for the same reason, the note itself is seldom sustained throughout, exactly at its proper pitch,—the voice always having a tendency to sink. Indeed to sing, in slow music, or serious harmony, every note perfectly true, and in correct time, is one of the last things which even good singers attain. Compared with this, it is easy (although the public may think differently) to run up and down the scale, and execute very florid and brilliant passages. Hence it happens that some of the most celebrated Italian singers are unable to give proper effect to much of Mozart's music, the beauty of which often consists in its graceful simplicity, or even to execute, otherwise than ill, the national anthem.

Neither is the larynx, or organ of voice, in a child sufficiently developed for sustaining, with the requisite fulness, long drawn out notes. Not only the ear, but the physical power is wanting. The voice of a child resembles rather the chirping of a bird than the performance of an organ; and the music, therefore, suitable for the one, is of a totally different character to that which is adapted for the other. In some infant schools, however, masters, altogether unfit for the situation, set the alphabet and other lessons to airs only adapted for a funeral service; the result of which among the children is a discordant effect like that of screaming or crying, instead of singing, while they appear listless and unhappy. In schools where the children are permitted to sing spirited popular airs, the difference is striking; in this case they not only often sing extremely well, but appear animated and cheerful, as if they enjoyed the music.

It is necessary also to observe, that it is only by means of melodies having a quick movement, and in which the accents are strongly marked, that the ear of a child can be made to acquire any notion of time in music. It is customary to begin in the case of elder pupils by teaching them to count time; but the first object should be to enable a child to feel the time of the music, or, in other words, to discover by the ear where the accents fall, upon which what is called time in music depends; for if in singing a sufficiently marked emphasis be not given to the accented notes, although they may be sung in exact clock time, that is to say, neither too fast nor too slow, the music will lose its proper effect. In very slow music it is quite impossible for the ear of a child to discover the accented notes;\* but, by means of lively melodies, children soon learn to keep time with their hands and feet, and this method of marking the time should always precede that of counting. Pupils who have never been allowed to

<sup>\*</sup> It may be observed that there is one kind of quick music open to the same objection. In teaching the piano-forte, a child is often tormented by being required to execute apparent impossibilities. Passages are given it to perform, written for the mere purpose of showing with what rapidity the finger may be made to move, and totally devoid of melody, accent, or meaning; the consequence is, the ruin of the ear and of all taste for good music.

depend upon the ear, but have been made to trust entirely to counting, are apt to become mere mechanical performers, incapable of entering into the true spirit of a composition.

Many persons have failed in their attempts to teach music to children, by endeavouring prematurely to form a taste for compositions of a higher order than it is possible very young persons can appreciate. This is to commit as great a blunder as it would be to make a spelling-book of Milton's "Paradise Lost," in order to create a taste for poetry. Those who would teach children to sing must have a great deal of patience, for some time will elapse before they discover the difference between noise and music; but it would require more than the patience of Job to hear them, at an early age of their instruction, attempt a piece of refined harmony, the beauty of which might depend upon a chromatic semitone, struck exactly in the right place, and at the right moment,—upon a crescendo or diminuendo movement, or upon an instrumental accompaniment, which could not be properly, if at all, supplied in the majority of schools.

If, therefore, the teacher be a profound musician, and, on that account, one who, for his own gratification, would study only works of a grave and scientific character, let him not hesitate, if he wish his young pupils to make any progress, to sacrifice, at first, his taste to theirs. There are quite difficulties enough in teaching little children to sing any air, however simple, in correct tune and time, without adding to their number; but those difficulties would be increased a thousand-fold by insisting upon children singing only airs which appear to them dull and insipid, and the melody of which cannot be easily remembered. It is a mistake to suppose that simple and cheerful melodies have a tendency to prevent a taste being formed at some future time for serious harmony. Let the teacher in this, as in all other branches of instruction, follow nature:she will not lead him wrong. A simple melody pleases at first, because it is understood, without an effort. The ear can follow it, and the memory can By and by, the ear begins to tire of this very simplicity, and craves for melodies of a more elaborate construction. So with harmony, the simplest chords please at first, because they are understood; but gradually the ear becomes capable of following, and the memory of retaining, the different parts of a more scientific composition when heard together; and ultimately it delights in tracing the skill and ingenuity with which a number of distinct melodies may be interwoven by a master of the art, so as to produce one grand combined effect.

But, however rapidly the taste of a child may improve, it is but seldom that it will be found to take the same pleasure in plaintive music, and melodies in a minor key, as persons who are more advanced in life. The reason is, that music, to please, must give expression to the feelings which govern the mind. In youth, the predominant feelings are those of hope and joy, arising from the flow of animal spirits. At a later period the mind has been saddened with disappointment; the bright visions of youth have been dissipated; sorrow and anxiety intrude upon our thoughts; and solemn, or plaintive music, has then an inexpressible charm, because it awakens a kindred chord in our bosoms.

These considerations should not induce the teacher entirely to discourage the

serious style of music for young pupils, but to reserve it for serious occasions. Even children may feel the sublimity of the Dead March in Saul performed upon a powerful organ during a funeral service; but if they were compelled to listen to the same air in the school-room, in the play-ground, or in the midst of a festive holiday party, they would think it the most intolerable they had ever heard. The same remark will apply to many other fine old church compositions—the hundredth psalm, for instance. During Divine Service, when the mind has been properly attuned to the most solemn subjects, it pleases both young and old; but compel little children to sing this psalm when they are thinking of making their escape, from a wearisome lesson, to their tops and marbles, and it will be one of the most effectual means that can be devised of damping their enjoyment, and causing music to be regarded by them as something hateful.

Teaching children to keep time with their hands and feet, will be found very useful in infant schools as an agreeable muscular exertion, calculated to quicken the circulation of the blood, as well as to raise the attention of the dullest to the tune he is required to learn. The noise they make by this method will of course somewhat destroy the effect of the music, but, if not permitted to make some noise, they will not learn to keep time accurately. The motion of the teacher's hand rising and falling will not be sufficient; but when accompanied with the sound of clapping or stamping, the ear assists the eye, and by means of both the object is attained with little difficulty. Neither is it of much consequence what noise they make while learning a new air, as the clapping or stamping would of course be dispensed with when they could sing it perfectly. No one thinks it necessary to keep time either by counting or beating, if well acquainted with the music in which he takes a part.

The teacher should stand before his class, raising his arm, and directing the children to do the same; at the first note after every bar in the music, his arm should descend, his right hand striking his left. When the children do not strike or clap their hands simultaneously, he should direct them to repeat the attempt till they are perfect.

In teaching them to keep time with their feet, he need pay no attention to the bars, but only to the accented notes. He should tell the children to lift up first one foot, and then the other, letting it fall upon an accented note; and when they can do this perfectly, as they stand up all together, or in classes, they may march round the room, or round the play-ground, to the sound of their own voices.

To lead the singing in schools, no instrument is so effective as a powerful treble voice. The mistress of a school, if she exercise her voice sufficiently to allow it to acquire the requisite strength, will have a great advantage in teaching children to sing over a master, as her voice is of the same pitch as theirs, while the voice of the master is an octave below that of the children; in consequence of which it is not always very easy for them to learn from the note he sings, what note it is he expects them to sing. Still, however, even a tenor voice is better adapted for guiding and controlling the voices of children than any instrument. But when the master cannot sing, or wishes to save himself some rather severe exertion, he should learn to play the Clarionet. German masters often make

use of the Violin, because it allows of their playing and giving directions at the same time. But the Clarionet assimilates more nearly with the voice, and would be better heard than the Violin. A Flute is useful, but has scarcely sufficient power. A Violoncello is best for the base. If an Organ, or a Piano Forte, be used, the air should be played at first without the accompanying chords, that the attention of the children may not be distracted by several sounds heard at one time. When the pupils are perfect, the instrument should be laid aside, or kept entirely to parts written for it exclusively. A melody is improved when the harmonies are taken up by instruments playing in very subdued notes; but in vocal harmony the effect is as perfect as possible with voices alone, and can only be impaired by the sounds of instruments. Even in performing the grand choruses of Handel, it would be well if care were taken to have no more instruments than sufficient to sustain the voices and perform the symphonies. The common error, however, is to make the band so powerful, that, whatever may be the number of vocal performers, they can only be occasionally heard.

Until the voices of the pupils have acquired strength by continued practice, some of the airs to be taught, which run much among the upper notes, should be pitched a tone, or a semitone, lower than they appear in the written music.

In teaching singing, as in teaching reading, great pains should be taken to render the enunciation of the pupil perfect. Whether the words to which the air may be adapted happen to be musical, or not, it is, above all things, necessary to sing so as to be understood.

That the meaning of the words should be properly conveyed, the pupil should be taught to distinguish those which require to be sung with more force and emphasis than the rest, and neither to sing every note alike, in the same even monotonous tone, nor to place an emphasis upon words of comparatively little importance, such as—a, an, the, and, of, &c. Children should never be allowed to sing airs arranged to words, which are so unsuitable, or so badly adapted to the accents of the music, that they cannot be sung with proper expression without offending the car. In some schools all sorts of airs are sung to the same spelling lesson or pence table, the melody being tortured for the purpose; utterly destroying all correct notions of time, accent, and expression. A more serious error in music cannot be committed.

Another fault against which the teacher will have to guard his pupils, is the habit of drawling or sliding one note into another, throughout a tune; a fault committed by almost all congregations in churches and chapels. When music is so written that one word, or one syllable, is divided among several notes, they require to be connected together by the voice; but whenever a note has a word to itself, it should be separated from those which follow it by a slight break, the voice ceasing and commencing again upon the next word. The habit of drawling singing is chiefly confined to those who sing, almost exclusively, slow tunes, and the fault is one which might be cured by means of melodies having a quick staccato movement.

When the children are learning a new air they should be allowed to sing it as loudly as they please; otherwise, it will be found that some of them, not

quite knowing the tune, and not understanding how to subdue the voice properly, will leave off, while the others will sing flat. When the air has been fairly acquired, the children should then be made to observe the superior effect of light and shade in music, or, in other words, of singing one part more softly than another:—sometimes sinking their voices almost to a whisper, and then gradually or suddenly increasing the volume of sound. They should at the same time be cautioned against singing so loud in a forte passage as to produce the effect of screaming, or over-straining the voice.

Every tune should be first taught to a class of the best singers, and not to the whole school. They will learn it most readily by themselves, and be the better able to teach the rest.

The above preliminary instructions for teaching, referring chiefly to children under six years of age, may be considered as forming the first stage of musical tuition. We proceed to the next.

### THE NOTATION OF MUSIC, &c.

Little children who have scarcely mastered the mysteries of the alphabet, should not be puzzled with crotchets and quavers, but, even in an infant school, a class of the elder boys or girls may be formed to learn the names and places of the notes, and there are few children who may not be taught, by the time they are eight or nine years of age, to read music sufficiently well, not, indeed, to sing perfectly at sight, but to derive great assistance from having the written notes before them, without which they would have to trust entirely to the memory.

To neglect this would be to throw away every chance of future improvement. It is obvious that if a child leave school ignorant of the notes, it can make no further progress in music, vocal or instrumental.

In forming a class, or a number of classes, for learning the notation of music, choice should be made of the best voices, and of those who can sing most correctly the common school songs and hymns.

Those who have had no previous opportunity of learning to sing by ear cannot be expected to make very rapid progress in learning to read music. A considerable time would elapse before they would be enabled to connect any sounds with written marks on paper.

Supposing the class to be formed, the teacher provides himself with a large black board, similar to those which are in common use in the Bell and Lancasterian schools, and a piece of chalk or pipe-clay. The class should be drawn up standing before the board, so that all can see it, each having a slate and pencil in his hand. The teacher then addresses the class to the following effect.

#### FIRST LESSON.

# THE NAMES AND FORMS OF THE NOTES. Teacher.—' Every sound in music is called a note, whether it be soft, or loud,

shrill, or deep: but it has also another meaning; it is not only the name of a sound, but the name of the sign by which the sound is represented, or marked upon paper; so that a person who can read music, may know, without hearing the note, what kind of sound is meant. Thus the signs or musical characters which you see me now make on the board, one long or slow, the other short or quick. Remember then that the word note has two meanings. It is the name of a sound, and the name of a sign by which the sound is expressed. Hence what is called the Notation of music is the art of noting, or marking down on paper different kinds of sounds, so that they may be understood, just as writing is the art of putting down our thoughts, so that they may be communicated to other persons, without speaking.

I will now show you all the characters called notes used in music, and tell you their names. Each of you will copy the note upon your slates, which I make upon the board.

||O|| This is called a breve. It is the sign of the longest note that a person can sing, without taking breath. Breves are now very seldom used, and you will meet with them but rarely, excepting in old music.

This sign is called a semibreve. The word semi signifies half. It is therefore a half breve; that is to say, it is a note held only half as long as a breve would be held.

This is called a minim. You will observe it is made like a semibreve, but with a stem added. A minim is half as long as a semibreve.

This note is called a crotchet. You see it has its face filled up, and has a stem turned a different way to that of a minim. A crotchet is half as long as a minim.

This is called a quaver. It is made exactly like a crotchet, but with the stem turned up. A quaver is a short quick note, half as long as a crotchet.

This is a semiquaver, or half a quaver.

This, with three strokes turned upwards, is called a demi-semiquaver. The word demi, as well as semi, signifies half, so that it means the half of half a quaver. A demi-semiquaver is the shortest, and quickest note used in music.

If you have attended to what I have been saying, you will recollect that a demi-semiquaver, is the half of a semiquaver, that a semiquaver is the half of a quaver is the half of a crotchet, it that a

crotchet is the half of a minim, that a minim is the half of a semibreve,

every breve is equal to two semibreves; every semibreve is equal to two minims; every minim is equal to two crotchets; every crotchet equal to two quavers; every quaver equal to two semiquavers; and every semiquaver equal to two demi-semiquavers.'

The teacher now proceeds to examine the slates, and employs those boys or girls of the class who may have copied the notes the most exactly, to correct the others. He then puts the following questions to the class upon the above lesson.

#### Questions.

How many meanings has the word note in reference to music? (two.)

What is one meaning?

What is the other?

What note is this, at which I am now pointing, on the board, | | ?

What is this sign called, ??

What is this, ??

This, ? this, ? this, ?? this, ??

Is a breve a long note, or a short note?

How long?

Is it used for quick or slow music?

What is the meaning of the word semi?

How long is a semibreve? (Half as long as a breve.)

How long a minim?

How long a crotchet? A quaver? A semiquaver? A demi-semiquaver?

How many semibreves are equal to a breve?

How many minims are equal to a semibreve?

How many crotchets to a minim?

How many quavers to a crotchet? &c.

How many crotchets do you say are equal to a minim?

How many quavers are equal to a minim? (4.)

How many semiquavers? (8.)

How many demi-semiquavers? (16.)

How many crotchets are equal to a semibreve? (4.)

How many quavers? (8.) Semiquavers? (16.) Demi-semiquavers? (32.)

These questions should not always be put in the above order, but sometimes dodgingly.

The teacher next effaces the notes from the board, and tells the class to rub them out from their slates. He then gives the chalk or pipe-clay to one of his pupils, saying, "Now make on the board, from memory, a breve—a semibreve—a minim—a crotchet—a quaver—a semiquaver—a demi-semiquaver;" the other children copying the notes as before on their slates, as they see them made. This done, the notes are again effaced, both from the board and the slates, and another boy goes to the board to make the notes from memory; and in this manner each in turn is called to the board, until the teacher is satisfied the whole of the class are perfect in their lesson.

This lesson, with several of those which follow, may be repeated, when the teacher is not present, by the monitor or head boy of the class.

Before proceeding with the next lesson, the teacher should have the five lines of two staves painted on a black board, with white paint, so that notes placed upon either staff may be rubbed out, when necessary, with a cloth, without effacing the staff itself, which would be required for subsequent lessons. It would also be desirable, for the same reason, that two staves should be engraved on one side of all the slates used by the children. On common slates this may be done with a nail, and a ruler.\*

When there may not be a board in the school sufficiently adapted to the object, the teacher should provide himself with a board or frame of painted canvass for the purpose. It should be six feet in length, and eighteen inches deep. A shorter length would not suffice for all the exercises requiring to be placed upon it. Two staves are necessary for the introductory lessons in two part harmonies, which will be all short, and simple. When the pupil has made sufficient progress to attempt a long, and difficult piece of music, he should sing, not from the board, but from a written, or printed copy, placed in his hands.

We suppose, therefore, the class to be drawn up before a board on which two staves are painted thus:—†


For the following lesson one staff only is absolutely necessary, and that need not be painted if the teacher does not mind the trouble of ruling fresh lines every time they are effaced.

<sup>\*</sup> White porcelain music slates are sold in the shops with the lines ruled; but they are generally too expensive for schools.

<sup>+</sup> If a wider board be used, and four staves be painted upon it, care should be taken to place the two upper at some distance from the two under staves, or the eye of the pupil will be perplexed in following his part.

#### SECOND LESSON.

#### PLACES OF THE NOTES.

Teacher.—'The five lines which you see before you are called the staff or stave. It is usual when speaking of one set of five lines to call them the staff, and when speaking of more than one staff to call them staves. Remember, -singular, staff; plural, staves. The use of the staff is to provide a number of different places for the notes, so that, by putting them sometimes in one place and sometimes in another, we can represent the comparative height or depth of different sounds. Thus, if we wanted to express on paper a very high or shrill sound, we should place it about the top of the staff; if we wanted to describe a very low or deep sound, we should place it near the bottom of the staff. You will observe that the staff consists of five lines, and four spaces between the lines. These lines and spaces are called degrees, and each of these lines and each of these spaces is called after one of the seven letters,—a, b, c, d, e, f, g; so that if I put a crotchet, for instance, in one place, it is called a; if I put it in another, it is b. Now, observe each place where I put a crotchet, and do the same thing on your slates. A \_\_\_\_ in the space just below the middle line; B on the middle line; C in the space just

above the middle line; D on the middle line; C in the space just above the middle line; D on the top line but one; E in the space just below the top line; F on the top line; G just above the top line.

The lesson on the board now stands as under, and the teacher with the monitors proceed to examine the slates, to see if the notes have been accurately copied, and rightly placed.



The following questions are then put:-

What are the five lines called?

What is the plural of staff? What is the use of the staff?

What is each line and each space called? (a degree.)

How many degrees are there on the staff?

What are their names?

What is the name of this note? (pointing to a.)—This? b.—This? c.—This? d.—This? f.—This? g.

These questions are then asked dodgingly, after which the notes are effaced from the board, and from the slates.

Teacher.—'It is necessary to make a distinction between the names of the notes as signs, and the names of the notes as taken from the places in which they stand in the staff. When I ask you therefore the name of a note, I expect to be told,—it is a minim, or a crotchet, or perhaps a quaver. When I ask the place of a note, you will have to answer a, or b, or whatever letter it may be called.

Now tell me what is the name of this note which I place on the middle line?  $\bigcirc$  What is its place called ? (b)

What is the name of the note which I put on the top line?

What is its place? (f)

What is the name of the note which I put on the top line but one?

Its place? (d)

What is the name of the note which I put just below the middle line?

Its place? (a)

The name of the note I put between the two top lines?

Its place? (e)

The name of the note I put in the space just above the middle line?

Its place? (c)

The teacher again examines the slates, effaces the notes, and exercises each of his pupils in turn, at the board, in the following manner:—

Make upon the board a quaver, and put it in the place c.

Make a crotchet, and put it in the place d.

A minim, and put it in the place b.

A semibreve in the place a.

A demi-semiquaver, in the place e.

A semiquaver, in the place g, &c.'

#### THIRD LESSON.

PLACES OF THE NOTES BELONGING TO THE UPPER AND LOWER SCALES.

The pupils forming the class are again assembled before the board, as they are supposed to be in all the subsequent lessons,—each with a slate and pencil.

Teacher .- 'All sounds in music, or notes, are called after the seven letters-

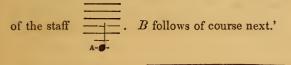
a, b, c, d, e, f, g. No other letters are ever used. For example, no note would ever be called h, i, or j; but when we have got to g, and wish to give a name to sounds higher than that note, we begin over again, a, b, c, &c. These seven notes are called a scale, and all kinds of sounds are divided into scales, each scale consisting of seven notes, named after the letters, a, b, c, d, e, f, g. On the piano-forte there are six of these scales, but at the present your attention need only be directed to three, which embrace more than the compass of the voice.

The places of the notes in one scale you have been taught, you must now learn the places of the notes belonging to the upper and lower scale. In order to find places for the notes of these scales, it is necessary to make use of what are called *leger lines*. These are short lines, which serve as an extension of the staff above it and below it, like those which I am now about to make.



It will be useful for you to remember that a is the space just below the middle line; because, if you recollect that, you may easily find out by counting where the other notes should be placed. G and a are always close together, because, after g comes a over again, going upwards, and after a therefore must come g going downwards.

The place of a in the lower scale is on the second leger line from the bottom



The teacher proceeds to describe on the board the places of all the other notes of the lower scale, then the notes of the middle scale, which the class have already learned, then the notes of the upper scale, till they all stand in the following order, but without the letters.



The slates having been examined, the teacher puts the following questions:—

What are the seven notes called?

How many scales are there usually on a piano-forte?

What are the letters which give names to the places of the notes?

Are there any notes called x, y, z?

No other letters but those you have named?

When we have got to g, what note comes next going upwards? (a, over again.)

Going downwards, what note comes after a ? (g)

And what after g, still going downwards? (f)

What are the short lines called, above or below the staff, at which I am now pointing?

What note, in the middle scale is it immediately below the middle line of the staff? (a.)

What is the next note above it on the middle line? (b.)

What is the note called which is placed on the second leger line at the bottom? (a.)

What is the note called on the first leger line at top? (a.)

In this manner the teacher proceeds to question the class, dodgingly, upon the places of each of the notes in the lower, middle, and upper scales, and concludes, as in the second lesson, by exercising each boy or girl of the class, in turn, at the board to the following effect:—

Put a minim, upon b, in the middle scale.

A crotchet, in the place b, in the lower scale.

A quaver, on b, in the upper scale, &c. &c.

The class should be more frequently exercised upon the notes of the middle and lower scale, than upon the higher, as they are comparatively but little used, even in playing upon an instrument, and no voice reaches to g in the upper scale, or, as it is called, g in alt.

#### FOURTH LESSON.

#### DURATION OF NOTES-TONES AND SEMITONES.

Teacher.—'My object in this lesson will be to give you a clear practical notion of the comparative duration of different notes. Observe the note which I am

going to put on the staff. What is its name? (A breve.) What is the

place of the note? (c.) Very well. Now I will sing this note to the word far, and I wish you to count audibly, while I sing it, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

Here the teacher sings the syllable far, holding on the note while his pupils count 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8.

Teacher.—Now do you sing the same note while I count 8.

(Here the pupils sing far, holding on the note while the teacher counts 8.)
The teacher proceeds to efface the breve from the board, and places instead, on the same degree of the staff, a semibreve. He sings it as before to the

syllable far, desiring the pupils to count 1, 2, 3, 4. Afterwards they sing it, while the teacher counts 4.

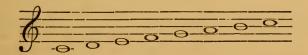
Next a minim is written on the board. The teacher sings far, while the pupils count 1, 2. The class then sing far, while the teacher counts 1, 2.

The teacher then writes upon the board

Teacher.—'I will sing these five notes to the words, far, far, far away, while you count 1, 2, 3, 4, twice.'

The class, having done this, sing the same words, while the teacher counts 1, 2, 3, 4, twice.

The teacher proceeds to describe upon the staff the following notes, and to question the class upon their names and places.



Teacher.—'I will sing these semibreves, not to the letters, a, b, c, d, e, but to the Italian syllables, which sound better, do, re, mi, fa, sol, la, si, do.' (These syllables must be pronounced, do, ray, me, far,\*sole, lar, see, do.)

'Remember these notes, as semibreves, are to be sung very slowly; and as you cannot sing and count at the same time, I wish you, in order to mark their time and proper duration, to clap with your hands four times upon each note.'

(The teacher explains that the left arm is to be brought to a level with the breast, and the right arm only to be raised, in order to strike the left.)

After the pupils have sung through the scale in this manner, clapping or striking the right hand against the left, four times upon each note, the teacher turns the semibreves into minims, by adding a stem to them, thus of and directs the pupils to sing through the scale to the same syllables, clapping or beating twice upon each note. He then converts the minims into crotchets by filling up the faces of the minims, and directs the pupils to sing through the scale with increased quickness, beating once only upon each note. This done, he adds a stem to the crotchets, and turns them into quavers: the pupils sing with increased quickness, beating once only upon every two notes. Next, another stem is added to the quavers, by which they are turned into semiquavers: the pupils sing the scale again more quickly than before, beating once to every four notes. The quavers are now converted into demi-semiquavers by adding another stem to the semiquavers, and the pupils are directed to sing the scale so quickly that they will have time to beat but once during the whole eight notes.

Teacher.—I wish to teach you the difference between notes and tones. You will recollect I told you that the word note signified the sound itself, or the sign by which the sound is expressed; but the word tone signifies the

<sup>\*</sup> The r in far and lar must be silent.

interval or distance between certain sounds,\* as, for instance, the sounds d and e. (Here the teacher should sing, or play upon an instrument, each of these notes.) The interval between these two notes is called a whole tone. But there are not only whole tones, but half tones, called semitones; instead of going from d to e, I may go only half the distance, to d sharp, thus: (Here the teacher performs upon the instrument D, and D sharp.)

But although there is a place for d in the staff, there is none for d sharp; and in order, therefore, to express it, we use this sign, called a sharp # (making it upon the board); and when we intend to pass from d to d sharp, we put this

sign before it: A sharp, therefore, signifies that the note is to

be raised a semitone: and in the same manner when we want to lower a note a semitone we make use of this sign, b, called a flat. The note e, and the note

half a tone lower, may also be written thus:

fore, that there are two modes of describing on paper the half-way house be-

tween d and e; it is sometimes written and sometimes

If we want to come back to d from  $d \not\equiv \text{or } a \mid b$ , we make use of another sign (1); it is called a *natural*, and signifies that the note is to be restored to its natural state.

The teacher should take a future opportunity to explain that when a note has been raised by a sharp, or lowered by a flat, in the signature, and we require to raise or lower it yet another semitone, we make use of characters called double sharps and double flats. A double sharp is , a double flat is ||

F with the double sharp before it is to be played as G. B with the

double flat before it is to be played as A

Questions.

What is the difference between a note and a tone?

What is the name of the interval between d and d sharp?

In order to signify that a note is to be raised half a tone, what sign would you put before it? (The sign of a sharp.)

<sup>•</sup> The word tone is sometimes loosely used in the same sense as note, as when we say, a full-toned organ; but this need not be stated to the pupils in the present stage of their instruction.

What sign would you put before it if you wanted to lower the note half a tone? (A flat.)

What sign if you wanted to restore the note to its original state? (A natural.)

The lesson concludes with exercises upon the board to the following effect:—

Put the sign of a sharp upon the line f, in the space c.

Put a flat in the space for e, on the line b.

Put a natural on e, b, &c.

#### FIFTH LESSON.

#### VARIOUS MUSICAL CHARACTERS.

Teacher.— You have been told that two quavers are equal to one crotchet, and that two semiquavers are equal to a quaver; but this is not always the case, for three notes are sometimes performed in the time of two, so that one minim is, in certain cases, equal to three crotchets, and one crotchet equal to three quavers. When this happens, the three notes to be sung in the time of two are usually distinguished by the figure 3 placed over them; and if

quavers or semiquavers, are joined together thus:

When three notes are written in this manner, to be sung in the time of two, they are called *triplets*. (Sometimes the 3 is omitted, but it is generally easy to find out, by the grouping of the notes, when they are intended to be sung as triplets).

It is customary to join all quavers, semiquavers, and demisemiquavers together at the bottom, that is, for instrumental music; but when each note is to be sung, and has a syllable to itself, it must be written quite separate and de-

tached from the rest, thus . When several notes are to be sung to the same syllable, without any space or break between them, the curved line, called a slur, is put over them, or under them, thus:—



When a slur is put over two notes, divided in the middle by an upright line,

thus it is called a tie, and signifies that the two notes are

to be performed as one.

Sometimes a minim is required to be held as long as three crotchets instead of as long as two only, and sometimes a crotchet requires to be held as long as three quavers; in such cases we put a dot by the minim, or the crotchet, thus,

This dot signifies that the preceding note is to be held half as long again as it would be held without the dot. A dotted minim is therefore equal to three crotchets; a dotted crotchet to three quavers; a dotted quaver to three semiquavers; a dotted semiquaver.

Upright lines like these are used to divide a tune into a number of equal parts,\* and are called bars. The space between them is sometimes also called a bar, but its proper name is a measure. Double bars, much thicker and blacker than the others signify the end of a part, and when written thus the end of the whole music.

Dots placed against a bar thus indicate that the preceding movement, or that the whole of the part is to be repeated, or sung over again; when placed thus they signify that the movement which follows is to be repeated. Besides the dots, there are two other repeat signs. One is S. This sign is placed over the notes where the repetition is to commence, in order to assist the eye in finding it out. The other repeat sign is in and is placed

under some bar or measure, thus

When the words Da Capo, or the letters D. C., are placed at the end of a tune, they denote that it is to be repeated from the beginning until we come to the word Fine, which signifies the end.

P is an abbreviation of the word piano, which means soft, and is used to show when the music is to be played softly. F is an abbreviation of the word forte, or loud, and shows when the music is to be performed full and strong.

The dash, or Staccato sign, thus shows that a note is to be sung

<sup>\*</sup> When the first bar, or measure, contains fewer notes than any other bar, they are added to the notes of the last bar to make up the proper number; the first bar and the last being in this case reckoned only as one.

short, with a break or pause between that and the next. The hold • signifies that the note placed under it is to be held much longer than usual.

Two lines forming an angle opening outwards, thus, form what is called the *Crescendo sign*, (pronounced creshendo). It signifies that the sound is to be increased. An angle drawn thus is called *the Diminuendo sign*. It signifies that the sound is to be diminished.

The direct (\*\*) placed upon a line at the bottom of a page, shows the place of the next note overleaf. The brace or bracket is used to join two or more staves together, and signifies that all the parts so joined are to be played or sung at the same time.'

## Questions.

When a figure of 3 is placed over three notes joined together, what does it signify? (The three notes are to be performed in the time of two.)

What are the three notes then called? (Triplets.)

How would you denote that several notes are to be sung to the same syllable? (By putting the curved line over them called a slur.)

When a slur is placed thus , joining two notes on the same

line, interrupted by a bar, what is it called?

How should these notes be sung? (As one minim.)

When a crotchet is to be held as long as three quavers, instead of two, how would you express it? (By a dot placed against it.)

When a dot is placed against a minim, thus o, what does it signify?

(That the minim is to be held as long as three crotchets.)

What are the upright lines called? (Bars.)

What is their use? (To divide a tune into equal parts.)

Supposing there to be six crotchets in one measure, should there be the same number in the next? (Yes, or as many quavers or other notes as would be equal to six crotchets.)

What do the double bars signify?

What do the dots between the lines against the bars signify?

What is the name of this sign ig?

What is its use?

What does this sign signify : ||:? (That the same words are to be repeated.)

What is the meaning of the words Da Capo?

Of the word Fine?

What is the meaning of the letter p?

Of the letter f?

What is this sign ?

What is this called?

In concluding the lesson, each of the pupils should make the above signs from memory, at the dictation of the teacher upon the board, or upon their slates.

## SIXTH LESSON.

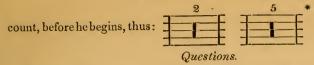
#### RESTS.

Teacher.—'The different signs, or characters, called minims, crotchets, quavers, tell you how long each note is to be held in singing it. Sometimes the music requires that you should leave off, and begin again; and it is necessary, therefore, that there should be signs to tell you exactly how long to stop,—that you may neither wait too long, nor too short a time. These signs are called rests.

This is a breve rest, , and is also used as a one measure or one bar rest. That is to say, it signifies that you are to stop as long a time as it would require you to sing a breve, or all the notes that might otherwise be placed between the two upright lines, called bars.

This is called a semibreve rest. \_\_\_\_\_, and signifies you are to wait during the time of two minims. It is also used as a one bar rest, even when there are more or less than two minims to every bar. This is a minim rest, \_\_\_\_\_, to denote a pause equal to the duration of two crotchets. This is a crotchet rest, \_\_\_\_\_\_, a pause equal to the duration of two quavers. This, which you will observe is turned the other way, to the left, is a quaver rest, \_\_\_\_\_\_, equal to the duration of two semiquavers. This a semiquaver rest \_\_\_\_\_\_.

When the singer, or performer, is required to wait more than one whole bar, or measure, a figure is placed above to denote the number of bars he is to



What are the signs called which tell you how long to be silent? (Rests.)

What is this sign called

How long does it require you to wait?

What is this sign called

How long does it require you to wait?

The teacher proceeds in this manner through all the rests, and afterwards directs each of his pupils to make them from memory upon the board, or upon their slates.

The lesson may conclude with the following exercise.



The teacher having written the above on the board, desires the class to count audibly 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, in each measure. While they are doing this he sings the notes to the above words, pausing the proper time when he comes to the rests. Afterwards the class sing while the teacher counts.

## SEVENTH LESSON.

THE CLEFS.

Teacher .- "When music is put into your hands to sing, you will observe, at

the head or beginning of the staff, this sign . It is called the treble or



a clef, and signifies that the music is to be sung or performed by voices or instruments of the highest compass. You know there are various kinds of musical instruments, and there are also different kinds of voices. The fife, and flute, produce much higher, or shriller notes, than those of the violoncello, and if you take notice you will observe that the voices of females, and boys, are much

<sup>\*</sup> To assist the memory, it is usual to count in this manner, 1 2 3 4. 4 2 3 4.

higher, or shriller, than those of men. When a man's voice is very powerful in the lower notes, it is termed a base\* voice, and when music is intended to be sung by base voices, or performed by base instruments, another clef or sign is

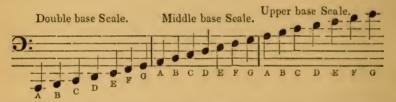
placed at the head of the staff. This is called the base or F clef.

The reason the treble clef is called the g clef is, that its curve line at the bottom is so placed as to enclose the second line of the staff, which is g.

In the base clef, and in the other clefs, the different degrees, or lines and spaces of the staff, are not called by the same letters, as in the  $\mathfrak g$  clef. The same line which is called  $\mathfrak d$  in the treble clef is called  $\mathfrak f$  in the base clef, and the base

clef itself being placed upon that line (F) is therefore called the F clef

I will now tell you the names of the different degrees of the staff in the base clef.



Besides the F clef, and the G clef, you will sometimes meet with what is called the c clef, which is written thus

whatever line it is placed upon in the staff, is intended to become c. Thus if I place it upon the middle line, which we call b in the treble clef, it is no longer

b but c; and all the other letters take their places accordingly.

This clef is now falling rapidly into disuse; but in old vocal music it is used in three different positions, in which it is severally called the soprano clef, the tenor clef, and the counter-tenor or alto clef.

Formerly, only music intended for the upper notes of instruments was written in the c clef, and all music intended for the voices of boys or females was written in the soprano† clef, in which the bottom line of the staff is converted into c, by

having the clef placed upon it



When this clef is placed upon the top line but one of the staff, it becomes

This word was formerly spelt bass, but Burrows and other modern writers spell the word as pronounced, base.

<sup>+</sup> Soprano, from the Italian word sopra, upper.

what is called the tenor clef

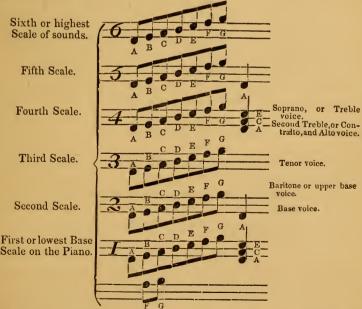


, and the notes then placed upon the

staff are designed for tenor voices,—that is, for men's voices of middle compass, neither very high nor very low.

When the clef is placed upon the middle line, it is called the Alto or Counter-Tenor clef, designed for men's voices of the highest pitch.\* In modern music, not only soprano parts, but parts written for tenor and alto voices are all placed in the c clef. When singing an alto part, men are generally obliged to make use of the falsetto, or of that kind of voice which was natural to them when children, and which ceases to be so about the age of fifteen, at which period boys' voices break. The highest notes of men's voices only reach to the lowest notes of women's voices, for the natural pitch of the voices of women and children is an octave, or eight notes, above that of men's voices. The lowest notes, therefore, of soprano voices, are the same with the highest notes of men's voices. When the voices of women and children are very powerful and rich in the lower notes, they are said to have fine contralto voices; the word contralto referring to the same notes as the words counter, tenor, and alto.

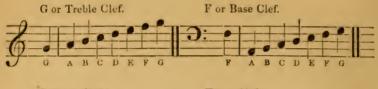
<sup>\*</sup> The following diagram represents the comparative pitch of the different voices, and the order of the different scales on a piano-forte of six octaves. It is much to be regretted that music had not been originally written upon a similar plan, in which it will be observed that a note never changes its place in the staff; the staff in this case, consisting of but three lines and four spaces, or of seven degrees instead of eleven.



The largest organs contain no less than eight scales, but the extreme upper and lower notes are of little practical use.

I will now direct your attention to the names of the principal degrees on the staff, as determined by the different clefs.'

The teacher clears the board, and writes as follows:-







The teacher now effaces the explanatory letters and words from the board, leaving only the notes, and proceeds to put the following

Questions.

What is the name of the sign to which I am now pointing ?

Why is it called the g clef? (Because it is placed upon the line g.)

Why is it also called the treble clef? (Because the music in that clef is generally sung by treble or soprano voices.)

What are treble or soprano voices? (The voices of boys and females.)

What are base voices? (Men's voices, very low.)

What is the name of this sign ?

Why is it called the r clef? (Because, when that sign is used, the line on which it is placed becomes r.)

What notes are chiefly written in the tenor clef? (The middle notes of a man's voice.)

What notes are written in the alto clef? (The highest notes of a man's voice.)

The lowest note upon a piano-forte is generally F, but the lowest note of the staff should be A; because, as the first letter of the alphabet, it would be the more easily remembered.

In composing full-score music it would still be useful to write upon this plan, by which the intervals and chords employed, and the merits of the composition would be much better understood than by the present mode.

What is the name of this sign ? (The soprano clef.)

Why is it also called a c clef? (Because whatever line it may be placed upon it becomes c.

When it is placed upon the top line but one, as in this instance, what is it

called ? (The tenor clef.)

When it is placed upon the middle line what is it called ? (The alto clef.)

Is the pitch of men's voices the same as that of females and boys?

How much lower? (An octave or eight notes.)

When are the voices of boys or females called contralto voices? (When they are rich and deep in the lower notes.)

The teacher then asks questions upon the names of the places of the notes in each of the different clefs: thus, pointing to a note in the base clef, he says, "What is the place of this note?" &c. &c.

The lesson concludes by the teacher clearing the board, and requiring each pupil to make the signs of the different clefs upon the board, and to place a note upon a, b, c, d, e, f, g, as determined by the clef.

The teacher should observe that while it is of great importance that the pupils should be perfectly familiar with the places of the notes in the treble or a clef, and tolerably well acquainted with their places in the F or base clef, it is comparatively of little moment that they should acquire more than a general notion of the places of the notes in the soprano, tenor, and alto clefs. The girls of course would never be required to sing music written in the tenor or alto clefs; and music written for treble voices in the soprano clef is now confined to very old copies or to foreign music. Music for alto or tenor voices is by Glee and Song writers now generally placed in the a clef; the composer taking the precaution to place the word tenor or alto against it to prevent mistakes.\*

Every musician who wishes to see a love of music universally diffused should discourage as much as possible the use of the c clef. There is nothing which perplexes the young pupil so much, and which is so apt to produce an impression that the difficulties of learning to read music are almost insuperable, as the variety of clefs. It is singular that they should ever have been adopted, for they are attended with no advantage that can compensate for the confusion they produce in the mind of the learner. It is true the c clefs sometimes obviate the necessity of leger lines, but not to any very material extent; and then only by rendering the places of the notes quite as uncertain to the eye at a first glance, as they could possibly be on leger lines.

<sup>\*</sup> In choral music the alto and tenor clefs are still used,—a practice which is attended with this inconvenience, that when a person accustomed to the tenor clef has to sing an alto part, which frequently happens, he is perpetually liable to sing the wrong notes, even when he takes the greatest care.

If we were to follow out the principle, that, because there are five different kinds of voices, there should be five different alphabets of music, we ought to invent one alphabet for the flute, another for the clarionet, and, in short, have as many clefs as there are musical instruments.

## EIGHTH LESSON.

TIME.

# Accents and Time Signatures.

Teacher.—'Every air has its peculiar accents, that is to say, some notes which have a more marked and emphatic character than the rest; for example, in the air which I have now placed upon the board, the first and fourth notes in each bar, or measure, are accented notes.

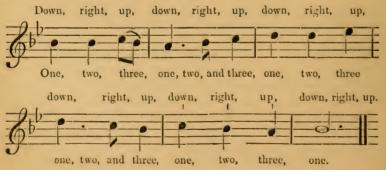


(The Teacher should sing or play the above, marking the accented notes, by beating with his hand or foot.)

In dividing a tune into equal parts or bars, an accented note is always placed next to a bar, and in most cases there is another accented note in the middle of the bar (as in this instance), but not invariably.

What is called *keeping time* in music consists of two things—first, marking the accented parts of a tune by beating or counting, so as to give to each bar or measure an equal duration; secondly, observing the right clock time, or performing an air neither more quickly nor more slowly than the composer designed.

In order to mark time by beating, the hand or arm must first be lifted up, and made to descend generally upon every accented note, but always upon the first note of the bar, which is sure to be a note more strongly accented than any other. In what is called *triple time*, it is customary to make three motions with the hand—one *down* upon the first note of the bar, one *to the right*, and a third *up*, before the arm descends again upon the first note of the next bar, as in the instance of the National Anthem:



(The Teacher should sing the air, beating time with his arm as directed.)

To keep time by counting, the rule is not always to count four to a semibreve, because it contains four crotchets, but to count one, two, three; or one two, three, four; or one, two, three, four, five, six; according to the number of notes contained in a bar. In some airs it is better to count six than three; in others, eight than four.

When we are singing the words of an air, it is impossible to keep time by counting, but we must do so when we come to a rest; and when singing for effect, or to enjoy the music, this counting must be done mentally, or so quietly to ourselves that it can be heard by no other person.

In order to learn the time of a new air, and the exact duration of each of the notes, it is desirable to sing it through first, not to the words to which it may be set, but to the words—one, two, three; or one, two, three, four, five, six. Let us now do so with the National Anthem, singing, as I have just done, for the first bar, one, two, three; and for the second bar, where there is a dotted crotchet, one, two, and three, and so on throughout the tune.\* (Here the teacher and class sing as directed.)

I must now explain to you the meaning of the characters called time signatures. But first let me tell you that all the characters at the head of the staff,

such as the clef, with flats and sharps, in different tunes, are called

the signature of the music, and hence certain other characters, also placed at the head of the staff, are called time signatures. These are, first, the signature of what is termed slow common time, C. This character indicates that every bar contains one semibreve or four crotchets, which are to be performed slowly. The same character with a line drawn through it is called quick common time, C. It signifies that there are the same number of crotchets or

quavers in every bar, but that they are to be performed a little faster than in common time.

 $\frac{2}{4}$  shows that every bar contains two fourth parts of a semibreve.  $\frac{6}{8}$  denotes that every bar contains six eighth parts of a semibreve.  $\frac{9}{16}$  that there are nine sixteenth parts of a semibreve in every bar. The upper figure shows the number, the lower, the value of the notes. As the fourth part of a semibreve is a crotchet,  $\frac{2}{4}$  therefore means two crotchets; and by the same rule  $\frac{6}{8}$  means six

<sup>\*</sup> It will be found that there is no better method of teaching children to sing the National Anthem in correct time than that of first making them sing it to the words one, two. three, and in every other bar, one, two, and three. It is here selected as an exercise, because, although it appears simple, it is really a very difficult air in respect to its time, on account of the dotted crotchets, which are never held sufficiently long by children, when they are made to sing this air in schools.

quavers,  $\frac{9}{16}$  nine semiquavers.

 $\frac{3}{4}$  is called the sign of *triple time*, and  $\frac{6}{8}$  the sign of *compound triple time*.  $\frac{3}{2}$  means that there are *three two parts* of a semibreve in every bar, or three minims.

All these time signatures are supposed to indicate not only the number of notes in each bar, but where the accents are laid; but they do this very imperfectly; you will find that both in  $\frac{3}{4}$  and  $\frac{6}{8}$  time, the accents sometimes lie upon the 1st and 4th notes, and sometimes upon the 1st, 3rd, and 5th notes. We have sometimes to count  $\frac{1}{2}$  3  $\frac{4}{3}$  5 6, and sometimes  $\frac{1}{2}$  2  $\frac{3}{3}$ 

4 5 6. It may also be observed that the time signatures give no notion of the real or clock time of a composition. They indicate that the music is to be performed quickly or slowly, but do not determine the exact degree of quickness or slowness required.\* For this purpose an instrument, upon the principle of the pendulum of a clock, is used, called a Metronome.†

Take a yard and a half of fine string, and fasten a bullet or any small weight to one end, holding the other between the thumb and finger. The string is then a pendulum. like the pendulum of a clock, and its vibrations will be quick or slow in proportion to its length. We have elsewere (page 55) given the scale by which a string pendulum of this kind should be graduated. This scale should be transferred (at full length) to the wainscot of a wall, by means of which the master or pupil might always measure his string in a moment, without having to seek for a foot rule.

<sup>\*</sup> On this account the German composers are beginning to omit altogether the time signatures, an example which should be generally followed, as tending greatly to simplify the notation of music, by removing much which is very troublesome (to children especially) to learn, and yet very unimportant, if not quite useless. It is as easy, when speaking of the time of an air, to say three crotchet time, or three minim time, as  $\frac{3}{4}$  time, or  $\frac{3}{2}$  time; and as neither  $\frac{3}{4}$  nor  $\frac{3}{2}$  indicate with precision how many figures to count in each bar, the composer should explain it at once, at the head of the staff, by saying. Count 6, or count  $\frac{1}{2}$ , indicating at the same time the exact duration of the crotchet or quaver by the metronome.

<sup>†</sup> The teacher should take another opportunity to explain, that Maelzel's Metronome, the instrument used for measuring the real or clock time of a composition with accuracy, consists of an upright rod which is made to oscillate, or vibrate, to and fro, as quickly or as slowly as may be desired. The vibrations are regulated by a weight, that slides up and down the rod, which is so graduated that when the weight is fixed at 160 the rod vibrates 160 times in a minute; when at 50, only 50 times in a minute. These instruments are usually constructed so as to produce at each vibration a sound like the ticking of a clock, and are very expensive; but, as the clock-work is quite unnecessary, a metronome may be made that will answer every purpose, at little or no cost.

## Questions.

What are the accented parts of a tune? (Those parts which have a more marked and emphatic character than the rest.)

Can you tell me where to find an accented note? (The first note in every bar is always one.)

What is time in music? (Giving to each bar or measure an equal duration, when singing it.)

How should we keep time? (Sometimes by beating and sometimes by counting.)

When I keep time by beating, upon what note should my hand always fall? (The first note in every bar.)

What are the clefs, and sharps, and flats called, at the head of the staff.? (The signature.)

What are these characters,  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $\mathbb{C}^{\prime}$ ,  $\frac{3}{4}$ , called? (Time signatures.)

What is this sign called, C? (The sign of common time.)

What does it signify? (That there are four crotchets in a bar, to be performed slowly.)

What is this sign, ¢?

What does it signify?

What is this sign called,  $\frac{3}{4}$ ? (The sign of triple time.)

What does it mean? (That there are three crotchets in every bar.)

What is  $\frac{6}{8}$  called? (The sign of compound triple time.)

What does it mean? (That there are six quavers in every bar.)

What does  $\frac{9}{16}$  signify? (That there are nine semiquavers in every bar.)

What does  $\frac{3}{2}$  mean? (Three minims in every bar.)

The lesson concludes by the pupil being required to make these various signs on the board or on their slates from memory.

It may be desirable to remark, as many persons are not aware of the fact, that, if the hand be held steadily, whatever may be the swing of the pendulum, while it remains at the same length, the vibrations will always be of the same duration, passing the centre at the same moment, until they cease.

When, at the head of the staff, the pupil sees M 50, or M 100, these marks mean that each minim or each crotchet is to be held as long as it would take a pendulum to swing once, at the rate of fifty vibrations in a minute, or one hundred vibrations, as the case may be.

### NINTH LESSON.

#### INTERVALS.

Teacher.—'The distance between one note and another, considered as sounds, is called an interval; a tone and a semitone are, therefore, intervals. But as there are greater intervals than these, it is usual to describe them by numbers; thus we speak of the interval between one note and that on the next degree as a second; the interval between the first and third note is called a third; that between the first and fourth is called a fourth, and so on, counting upwards or downwards from the first note. The interval of the eighth is called an octave. We will now sing through the intervals with which it is most important you should be familiar.'

Here the teacher puts the following notes upon the board, and sings them with the class to the words placed underneath the staff, taking care, if his own knowledge of music be imperfect, to assist himself with a flute, a pitch pipe, or some other instrument, that the notes may be sung quite correctly.



Teacher .- 'I will now sing the same intervals, counting downwards.'

Here the teacher places upon the board the following notes, and sings them with the class as before:—



Teacher.—'When music is put into your hands with which you are unacquainted, you will often find yourself at a loss to determine the exact sound which belongs to the written note; but you will observe, from the exercise I have just given you, that it will never be very difficult to find out what sound is meant, by running through all the intermediate intervals, as we have been doing, until you come to the note to be sung.'

one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, one, eight.

Before the intervals, ascending and descending, are effaced from the board, they should be sung by the class over and over again, the teacher always pointing to the notes as they are sung,—afterwards each pupil of the class should sing them individually; but if too diffident, two or three of the pupils may sing together; the object being to fix the attention, and ascertain the progress made by each. This lesson should on subsequent occasions be frequently repeated.

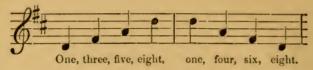
### TENTH LESSON.

METHOD OF SINGING THE INTERVALS WITHOUT RUNNING THROUGH THE IMTERMEDIATE NOTES,

Teacher.—'In reading music you will find that there are some intervals which are much easier to be sung than others. The most easy are the intervals

arising out of what is called the common chord, or the third, fifth, and eighth, counting upwards, and the fourth, sixth, and eighth, counting downwards.

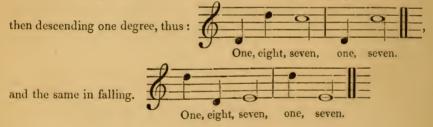
The teacher directs one of the class to write from dictation, notes in the following order, which the class afterwards sing, first altogether, and then individually.



Teacher.—'The easiest interval to raise with the voice, is that of the eighth or octave, and the reason is that the eighth is precisely the same note as the first, excepting that the one is of a higher pitch than the other; one being what is called grave, and the other acute. We will now sing an exercise in octaves, rising and falling.



Teacher.—'Thus you will perceive, that when one note is exactly the eighth from another, there is no difficulty in finding out how to sing it. And this knowledge of the facility of raising an octave will help you to sing the other intervals. For instance, the interval of the seventh. This is one which you will not learn to sing at sight without considerable practice, but when you come to it, you can always find out the sound to be sung, by first singing the octave, and



Questions.

What are the easiest intervals to sing? (Those of the common chord, the 3rd, 5th, and 8th.)

Which of those intervals is the easiest? (The 8th.)

Sing the eighth to the sound c

Here the teacher pitches the note, and the class sing the octave to it without his assistance. The same with d, e, f, g.

The lesson concludes by the teacher effacing the notes from the board, and

desiring first one and then another of the class to write upon the board in crotchets, the third to c, the fifth to c, the eighth to c, the seventh to c, &c.; so that, although they may begin at first by counting the intervals, they may learn ultimately to name them at a glance. He then, pointing to B, says, "What interval is this note from c? (A 7th.) What interval is a from c? (A 6th), or questions to the same effect.

### ELEVENTH LESSON.

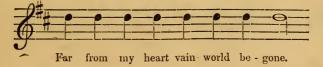
### INTERVALS CONTINUED.

Teacher.—'The easiest intervals to sing I told you were the third, fifth, and eighth; but the intervals of the fourth, sixth, and eighth, are not very difficult, and when you have learned to sing them, you will have obtained a tolerable notion of the method of finding out what sound is meant by any note which you may see upon the staff.'

Here the teacher dictates to one of the class the following notes, which, when written upon the board, he directs the class to sing. In this exercise it is important that the difference between the third and fifth, and fourth and sixth, should be accurately marked, and unless the teacher have a very correct ear, it is absolutely necessary that he should make use of an instrument in pitching the notes.



These exercises should be sung over and over again till each pupil in the class can sing them perfectly. The board is then cleared, and the teacher places upon the staff the following notes, which he desires the class to sing.



Teacher to one of the class.— Rub out the last p, and insert a minim in lower p.



Far from my heart vain world be - gone.

Teacher to the class.—' Now sing it, taking care to fall an octave upon the last note.'

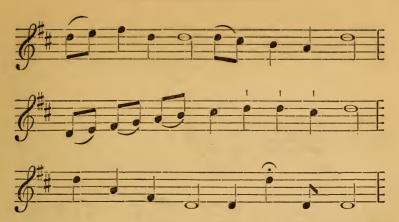
Teacher to one of the class.—Rub out every alternate note, and insert in its place a note upon E.



Teacher to the class .- 'Sing as before.'

The teacher continues, upon the same plan, to cause further changes to be made in the position of the notes, and to direct the class to sing them to the same words. The following changes may be made, none of which will be found very difficult exercises to sing, even without the assistance of a teacher.





The teacher's knowledge of music, and experience with his pupils, will suggest many other variations of the same lesson, which, in one form or another, cannot be too frequently repeated.

### TWELFTH LESSON.

### INTERVALS CONTINUED.

Teacher.—'The present exercises, like the last, are designed to facilitate your progress in learning to read music at sight, and further, to enable you, when a number of notes are joined together, in one movement, to sing each note with distinctness.'

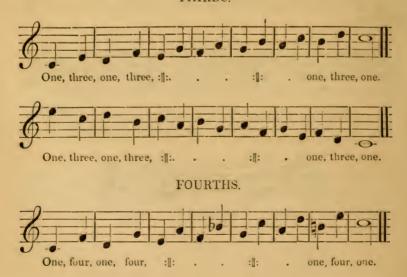






This lesson may conclude with sometimes one, and sometimes another of the following exercises, the teacher assisting the class, in the first instance, with a flute or some other instrument.







# FIFTHS.



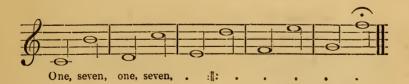


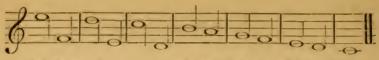
### SIXTHS.





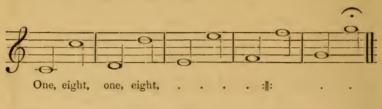
## SEVENTHS.





One, seven, : [: . . one, two, three, four, five, six, seven.

## OCTAVES.





# Exercise in minor or flat thirds.





# Exercise upon various accidentals.\*



<sup>•</sup> When flats, sharps, or naturals are introduced without being in the signature at the head of the staff, they are called accidentals.



### THIRTEENTH LESSON.

THE DIATONIC, AND CHROMATIC SCALES, AND KEYE.

Teacher.—'You have already learned that the seven letters, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, give names to all the sounds known in music. The reason of this is that there are strictly but seven sounds, although there may appear to you a much greater variety. The difference between one seven and any other seven is merely a difference of pitch, one scale being higher or lower than another:—thus the first of the scale with a mere difference of pitch is the same as the eighth or first of the next scale; the second the same as the ninth; the third the same as the tenth; the fourth the same as the eleventh; on which account, when we are referring to the tenth or eleventh, it is usual always to describe them as the third and fourth in the scale above.

The seven notes, therefore, comprising all the notes known in music (for the same notes, when flattened or sharpened a semitone, are not very sensibly different) may be termed the natural scale.\* But it is now necessary to explain what are called the Diatonic scale, and the Chromatic scale. Let me remind you that the interval between the two notes A and B on the staff is called a tone, and, half that, the interval of a semitone. The term Diatonic scale signifies a scale consisting chiefly of whole tones—and the term Chromatic scale means a scale consisting entirely of semitones.

The Diatonic scale is composed of the seven notes placed in their regular order of progression, with the addition of the eighth, or first over again, in the octave above. For example, one of the exercises which you have already frequently sung, forms a Diatonic scale.

<sup>\*</sup> The Diatonic scale is, however, frequently called the natural scale, but very injudiciously; for, as a melody, it is quite as artificial as the Chromatic scale.

The term Diatonic is derived from two Greek words—dia, through, and tonos, tone. The term Chromatic is derived from chroma, colour—supposed to be because the introduction of the semitones gives, figuratively, a colouring to the music, or a light and ornamental effect. The probability, however, is that the ancients had some better reason for employing these terms, of which we now know nothing.

Here the teacher describes upon the board the following notes.



This scale is also known by the name of the gamut, because the lowest note at one time (reckoning from g in the base) used to be called gamma, (the Greek word for g), and the highest, ut, thus forming the word gam-mut.

The chromatic scale, consisting entirely of semitones, is written thus; and you will remark that although we ascend and descend by precisely the same intervals, it is customary to use sharps in ascending, and flats in descending.



The Diatonic scale contains five whole tones, and two semitones. The semitones are between the third and fourth, and seventh and eighth; the same notes which you will observe I have connected with a slur. It is not, however, very easy for a learner to understand the relative distance of the notes from each other as they appear in the staff, and therefore, in order to explain it to you, I will make use of a diagram.'

Here the teacher describes upon the opposite side of the music board, or upon some other board in which there is a clear space, the following diagram, the narrow spaces of which are intended to represent semitones, and the wide spaces tones.



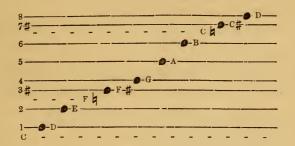
'I must now tell you that a scale like the above, besides being called the Diatonic scale, and the gamut, is also called a key; and to distinguish one key or Diatonic scale from another of a different pitch, it is called by the name of the note upon which the scale begins, which note is called the key note: thus when the scale begins upon c, as in this instance, it is called the key of c; if it begin upon p, we should call it the key of p; and upon E, the key of E, and so on.

The key of C, which is represented in our diagram, is sometimes called the *natural* key,—not because it is in the least more natural than any other, but because all the notes of the Diatonic scale can be played in this key without the artificial assistance of flats and sharps.\*

The key of D is not termed a natural key, because it requires a sharp to raise two of the notes, otherwise the tones and semitones of the Diatonic scale would not be in their proper places.

You will perceive this by referring again to the diagram. If we take D (pointing to D in the diagram) as the first note in the scale, then the semitones, you observe, fall between the 2nd and 3rd, and 6th and 7th, instead of between the 3rd and 4th, and 7th and 8th. To prevent this it is necessary that r and the upper c should be each raised half a tone, and then the semitones fall as they ought to do, between the 3rd and 4th, and 7th and 8th.'

Here the teacher rubs out the bottom line, raises the F and the c lines, and places another line at the top for D. The diagram now stands thus:—



'Now, in order, that you may understand by the ear as well as by the eye, the places of the tones and semitones, we will sing through the notes of the Diatonic scale, beginning upon D, and you must pay great attention to notice the difference between the notes B and C, and F and G: you will perceive that the difference is by no means so great as that between any of the other notes, consisting of whole tones.'

Here the teacher describes upon the board the following notes, which are then sung. B and  $\mathbf{r}$  are written as minims, in order that by dwelling upon them, the ear may be prepared for the coming semitone.

<sup>\*</sup> When there is a piano-forte at hand, the teacher may further explain that this instrument, like all others, is tuned to the key of C, so that all the tones and semitones in the key of C may be performed without touching one of the black bits of ivory, by which the flats and sharps are produced. He may also state that both the black and white bits of ivory are called keys.



You will observe that, for reasons which you have had now explained, the signature of the staff contains two sharps, signifying that F and c are to be each raised a semitone. If we had begun a scale upon c, there would have been no sharps in the signature; but take care to remember that music is so written, and instruments are so tuned, that the interval between E natural and F natural, and between B natural and c natural, is always a semitone.

# Questions.

How many sounds are there in music?

What are they?

What is the 8th note? (The first over again in the scale above.)

What is the 9th?

The 10th?

The 11th?

How many notes are there in the Diatonic scale?

What is the meaning of the term? (A scale consisting chiefly of whole tones.)

Chiefly or entirely? (Chiefly.)

How many whole tones, and how many semitones does it contain?

What is the position of the semitones? (Between the 3rd and 4th, and 7th and 8th.)

What other name is given to the Diatonic scale? (A key.)

By what name is one key known from another?

What note is called the key note?

Why is the key of c sometimes called the natural key?

What is the Chromatic scale? (A scale consisting entirely of semitones.)

What is the name of the interval between E natural and F natural—a tone or semitone?

Between B natural and c natural? (A semitone.)

Between A natural and B natural?

Between c natural and D natural?

The lesson may conclude by the pupils being required to write from memory upon their slates, or upon the board, the Chromatic scale.

## FOURTEENTH LESSON.

## MAJOR AND MINOR KEYS.

Teacher.—'Diatonic scales, besides being called keys, are also termed major keys, to distinguish them from minor keys, which I will explain to you presently. Now as not only each of the seven natural notes, but each of the half notes between them, may become the key-note of a Diatonic scale, there

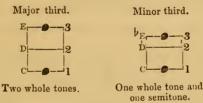
are altogether twelve major keys, each of which is known by a different signature on the staff. I will now show you on the board the signature of each of these keys, and you must copy them on your slates as I write them.





In each of these major keys, the notes bear one uniform relation to each other. The tones and semitones are always in the same places—that is to say, the semitones are always between the third and fourth, and seventh and eighth, counting from the key note, and the remaining intervals are whole tones.

In what are called *minor keys*, the first semitone is between the second and third, instead of between the third and fourth. In other words, the third is minor instead of major. To make the distinction between major thirds and minor thirds perfectly clear to you, let me again illustrate the subject by a diagram.



When the melody in a minor key does not ascend higher than the sixth, the sixth also is minor—that is, half a tone lower than in major keys.

Minor keys are used for the serious and plaintive kind of music, while cheerful music is always written in major keys. To show you that the minor keys are adapted for the expression of grief or sorrow, let us sing a short exercise in the key of a minor.

(The teacher writes upon the board, and the class sing the following:)



Questions.

Besides the term gamut for the Diatonic scale or key, what other name is given to the same series of notes? (Major key.)

Why is a Diatonic scale called a major key? (To distinguish it from a minor key.)

What is the chief difference between major and minor keys? (The third is minor instead of major.)

Is there any other interval minor in minor keys? (Yes; the sixth, when the music does not ascend higher than the sixth.)

What keys are used for cheerful music?

What for plaintive music?

How many major keys are there?

This lesson may conclude by the teacher requiring each of his pupils to write on a slate or on the board, from memory, the signature of the following keys:

—c, p, E, F, G, A, Bb. As the other keys are comparatively but seldom used, the pupils need not be required to remember them in this stage of their instruction.

## FIFTEENTH LESSON.

### SIGNATURE OF MINOR KEYS.

Teacher.—'As every scale may be played or sung with the semitones between the second and third, and fifth and sixth, instead of between the third and fourth, and seventh and eighth, there are, of course, as many minor keys as major keys—that is to say, twelve of each. You must now, in order that you may know when music placed before you is written in a minor or in a major key, learn the signatures of the minor keys.

The signatures of the minor keys.

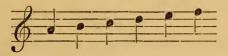




Teacher.—'You will perceive that the signatures of the minor keys are the same as those of the major keys, although the key note is different; and this similarity, if you are not very careful, will cause you sometimes to confound them together. Thus you observe the signature of a minor is the same as the signature of c major; the signature of a minor is the same as the signature of B b major. To find out which is which, you must attend to the accidentals.

Here I must explain to you that the signature of minor keys is always written on the supposition that the melody does not ascend above the sixth. Thus in a minor no flats or sharps are put in the signature, because none are required up to F, the sixth. But when the melody ascends to the eighth it is necessary to make the sixth major, and also to raise the seventh a semitone, or otherwise the effect to the ear would be extremely unpleasing.

Let me show you a minor ascending only to the sixth.



In this example you would not easily find out whether the key be c major or a minor; but the case will be different when the melody ascends above the sixth.

A minor ascending to the eighth. C major ascending to the eighth.



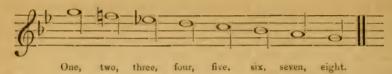
You observe there is a sharp, or accidental, upon the sixth and seventh of a minor, but none in c major. The sharps, therefore, or accidentals, in this case enable you to determine that the key is minor and not major.

In the same way you may determine whether a key is in G minor, or B b major, and so with other keys.



It is remarkable that the melody of a minor key, although in ascending to the eighth, it requires that the sixth and seventh should be raised, descending from the eighth, the same notes are required to be lowered, and restored to their former state. I will give you an example which you may sing to the words, one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight.





When a minor key has the same signature as a major key, it is called the relative minor of that key. Thus in the instance before us, G minor is called the relative minor of B b major.

## Questions.

May every scale be played or sung with a minor instead of a major third? (Yes.)

How many minor keys are there? (Twelve-as many as major keys.)

Are there any flats or sharps in the signature of c major? (No.)

Are there any in the key of a minor? (No.)

When the signature of a minor key is the same as a major key, how do you find out whether the key is major or minor? (By observing whether there are any accidentals upon the sixth and seventh of the scale.)

What is meant by the relative minor of a major key? (A minor key that has the same signature with the major key.)

What is the relative minor of B b major? (G minor.)

The teacher proceeds to require each of his pupils to write upon their slates, or upon the board, from memory, the signature of the different minor keys, but chiefly the keys of A, B b, c, D, Eb, and G.

To assist them in doing this, he may further explain that the key note of the relative minor is always a minor third below the key note of a major key with the same signature. So that the signature of A minor, or B minor, may always be known, if we bear in mind that it must be the same as the signature of the major key, a third above; for example:—

# Key notes with their Signatures.



As the junior pupils will seldom have to sing music written in minor keys, they should not be detained too long over this lesson, because, in all probability, it would be forgotten long before it could be of any practical use to them. The older pupils should study it attentively.

## SIXTEENTH LESSON.

THE KEY NOTE.

Teacher .- " When you have a piece of music put into your hands to sing,

and you have no instrument to accompany you, and no leader to help you, the first thing you should do is to find out what key it is in, and the next, to sing the key note by itself; for if you once get the key note well in your ear, so as to fasten it upon your memory, it will help you greatly to sing all the other intervals of the scale correctly.

When you are puzzled by the signature, and cannot make out in what key the music is, you may always find the key note by looking at the base, when there is one. It is a rule in composition that generally the first, but always the last, note of the base shall be the key note.'

Here the teacher should exhibit different pieces of music with a base, and desire his pupils to find out, by this method, the key note.

Teacher.—'In order to pitch the key note right, it is customary to make use of a tuning fork.'

The teacher should exhibit a tuning fork; or, if one cannot be procured, a pitch pipe, or some other instrument should be obtained for the following exercises.

Teacher.—'The note given by a tuning fork is generally c; but if you hear c it will help you to find out any other note which may happen to be the key note. For example: suppose the key note to be D; if I play c, you can easily find out the right pitch of D, because it is but the next note.

The teacher plays c, and the class sing, first c, and then D, as follows:-



Suppose the key note to be E; I will play c again, and do you sing E.



Now having found out the key in this manner, by means of a tuning fork, we have next to find out what is the first note of the tune, or part, to be sung in the music placed before us; whether that note be the same as the key note, or some other. Suppose g to be the key note, and the part we have to sing begins upon D. Let me hear if you can sing D correctly, if I give you the key note g. Remember D is the fifth of the key note.'

The teacher plays c, and the class sing as follows:—



The lesson may conclude with any of the customary school songs or vocal exercises; the teacher singing first the key note, and desiring his pupils to pitch, themselves, the note on which the part they have to sing begins.

This practice should be followed, generally, with all the school music, whenever a class is about to commence singing.

## SEVENTEENTH LESSON.

HARMONY - SINGING IN PARTS.

The class must be divided into two bodies, one half forming to the right, the other to the left, but all facing the board. The teacher explains that those to the right are in future to sing the part written for "first voices," and those to the left to sing the part written for "second voices."

In dividing the class, the teacher will be careful to select for second voices generally the elder pupils, whose voices are the most powerful in the lower notes. He will also see that a clear space, of standing room, be left between those who are to sing the first and those who are to sing the second; otherwise, the two divisions will become confused, and one will be apt to sing the other's part. When the second voices are heard to be louder than the first, their number must be diminished, or the number of the first voices increased.

Teacher.—'As you are about to take a lesson in harmony, I wish you to understand the difference between harmony, and melody. Every air or tune heard by itself is a melody, but when two or more airs are so arranged as to produce a pleasing effect if performed together, they constitute what is called harmony. Two or more sounds heard, not in succession, but at the same moment, form either a concord or a discord. When the effect is good, it is called a concord; when the sounds jar, and grate upon the ear, they are termed a discord.

# Questions.

What is a melody? (An air or tune of any kind.)
What is harmony?
What is a concord?
What is a discord?

The teacher then dictates the following notes to one of the class, by whom they are written upon the board, after which they are sung; the first voices singing the notes upon the upper staff; the second singing the notes upon the lower staff.



When the above three exercises have been sung perfectly by the class, the board is again cleared and the following notes substituted.





The lesson may conclude sometimes with one, and sometimes with another of the exercises of the preceding lessons.

The pupils having arrived at this stage, are sufficiently advanced to sing with more or less facility from written music. They will not indeed be able to sing music, new to them, perfectly at sight, without any assistance from the teacher, or from an instrument; but such a degree of proficiency is only acquired by long continued practice. The ear must be continually accustomed to nice gradations of sound, or the difference between one interval and another will not be retained by the memory; and the eye must be equally accustomed to connect those intervals with the written marks on paper, or the notes on the staff will not always recall to mind the precise sounds which they are intended to express. On this account it is of great importance that the pupils, even before they are thoroughly conversant with all the preceding lessons, should begin to sing from written or printed music. Copies should be placed in their hands of the simplest school songs which they have been taught by ear, in order to establish an association in their minds between the sounds with which they are already familiar, and the notes before them. By these means children will

begin to feel their way, and will thus in a short time gain a more practical knowledge of the subject, than can be conveyed by any merely verbal explanation.

There can be no difficulty in carrying this plan into effect, because, although a considerable number of books may be too expensive for many schools, music paper is cheap, and the best writers in a school can always be employed to make as many copies of the school songs, or hymn tunes, as may be required. For these copies the teacher should procure music paper of a moderately large size, and should direct his pupils to place the notes rather wide apart; otherwise, as boys and girls seldom write sufficiently small, with clearness, the right note would not always be placed over the right word.

The teacher must not be disappointed if, after passing through all the preceding, and following exercises, with his young pupils, he finds himself still obliged, with regard to the greater number, to depend more upon the ear than the eye, in teaching them a new air, or a new second. When the music is at all difficult, it must still (unless the pupils have had considerable practice) be taught chiefly by the ear; but the advantage of the notes will be, even to the dullest, that they will refresh the memory, so that a part once learned will always afterwards be read with facility, and will never be forgotten.

To enable, therefore, a class to sing through a new part written for second voices, the teacher must first learn to sing or play it perfectly himself, and then sing or play it to the class; they singing it with him, but with the music in their hands, and their eyes fixed upon the notes. Sometimes he will assist them only with the more difficult intervals, and sometimes he will merely give them the key note, telling them to find out the rest. This course must continue to be pursued until both the ear and the eye have been sufficiently tutored to require no further aid.

The following lesson will be useful in impressing upon the mind the connexion between sounds, and musical characters, or signs.

# EIGHTEENTH LESSON.

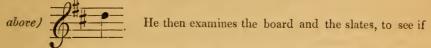
SOUNDS, AND SIGNS.

The teacher must provide himself with a flute, or some other instrument. The class stand before him, each with a slate, having the staff ruled, or engraved upon it, and one of the pupils at the board.

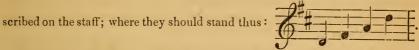
Teacher—'I am now about to play a number of notes on this instrument, and I wish you to pay great attention, and listen to them, so that you may be able to put the notes down upon your slates, on the staff in their proper places, one after the other, as you hear them played. The name of the notes I shall play, will be crotchets, but you must find out by the car whether the place of the notes is A, B, C, or D, and put it down accordingly All the assistance I shall give you, will be to tell you the first note. That will be lower D.

Here the teacher plays lower D,

Teacher.—'Put that note down.' 'Now put down, without my telling you what it is, 'this note.' (Here the teacher plays D, in the octave



all the pupils have described the two notes correctly upon the staff. The teacher then plays lower D, then F, A, and upper D, and again examines the slates to ascertain whether the sounds have been properly understood, and rightly de-



The teacher proceeding in the same manuer, plays through a number of easy intervals, like the following—the pupils continue to listen, and to place the notes in their proper order, without any copy to guide them.



The teacher may conclude the lesson by playing through any air in his collection not too difficult, and desiring the pupils to put down the notes by ear, as nearly as they may be able—he merely assisting them by giving the name of the key note.

These exercises will be found very useful, and cannot be too often repeated.

## NINETEENTH LESSON.

### SINGING WITH TASTE AND EXPRESSION.

Teacher.—'There are two or three faults in singing, against which it is of importance you should guard. One is the habit of drawling, or sliding from one note to another, when the music requires that a note should be kept distinctly separate from the next note by a slight break; the voice ceasing, and commencing again upon the following note. For example; it is a common

fault, when there are two notes to be sung, like these,

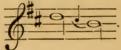


to sing them as if they were three notes, written thus:



The effect of this alteration is often very bad, and as a general rule it is always best to adhere strictly to the written music, and never to sing a single note which you do not find upon the staff. When notes are intended to glide in this manner one into another, a small note called a grace note, or an approggia-

tura, is usually inserted—thus:



Another fault to avoid is, singing with your mouth nearly shut, and your teeth quite closed. Even in singing the close sounds, such as c, D, G, you should keep your teeth as far apart as you can possibly do, consistently with distinct articulation.

Every sound is to be rendered as full and round as possible; but remember especially, that in singing, every word should be as correctly and as distinctly expressed, as if you were speaking. No display of skill or science in the execution of difficult passages will compensate for the want of a good enunciation. Unless you sing so as to be understood, you degrade the voice to a level with an instrument. The great superiority of the voice over a flute or flageolet is, that it can not only give utterance to sweet sounds, but make words of them, so as to express a meaning which the sound alone would not convey. But there is no fault more common, even among those who think themselves good singers, than that of expressing their words so indistinctly that their meaning is wholly lost.\*

Remember, also, that too much attention cannot be paid to the P's and F's, or to the words Piano and Forte, so that you may not sing an air, throughout, in an even monotonous tone, but improve the effect by singing some parts

<sup>\*</sup> This fault is often greatly increased by singing music to Italian words, to the meaning of which an English audience is always indifferent. A very young pupil should, therefore, learn to sing well words in his own language before he attempts any other.

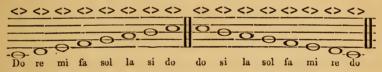
much more softly than others. When all the notes are sung equally loud, the music is as defective as a painting would be without light and shade.

When you have no guide to tell you what notes should be sung more emphatically than others (for sometimes the F's and P's are wholly omitted), you must then be governed by the sense of the words. Thus, if you come to the word "grief," or "sorrow," you should sing it softly; if to the word "joyful," or "triumphant," you should sing it forté. The same rule applies to alterations of the time, which are often not marked: when the words are of a plaintive character, the music requires to be comparatively slow; when of a cheerful character, quick.

In all slow music it is of great importance that every note, however loud in the middle, or even at the beginning, should die away towards the end; otherwise, the sudden cessation of the voice, excepting in the peculiar case of a staccato movement, will produce a very harsh and unpleasant effect. Generally, every long note should be soft at the beginning, loud in the middle, and soft at the end, as if the crescendo and diminuendo sign were written over it—thus,

We will now sing through the gamut, increasing and diminishing the power of every note.

Remember that you are to begin each note with your voices sunk to a whisper, that they are to swell in the middle, and die away quite softly at the end.



Sometimes you will see this sign, h, written over a note. It stands for TR, which is an abbreviation of the word *trill*, or *shake*. A *shake* signifies the sliding from one note to another several times with great rapidity. If I write

down two notes, B and c, and place a shake over B, they

require to be performed thus:-



The teacher must not expect the majority of children under fourteen years of age to learn to sing a shake perfectly; and as it is not required in choral music, he will do well in most cases not to lose too much time about it, but, after explaining it, proceed to more important lessons.

A few, however, of the pupils, who may show the greatest aptitude in music, may be taught the shake; to learn which it is simply necessary to begin singing the two notes forming the shake at first very slowly, gradually increasing their quickness after the following example:—



Teacher.—'Besides the musical characters or signs which you have now learnt, there are a number of Italian words of which it is necessary you should know the meaning, as they are often given, as directions to the singer, for the time. Adagio signifies a slow, solemn movement; Largo means very slow; Larghetto, not so slow as Largo; Andantino, rather slow and graceful; Andante, not so slow as Andantino; Allegretto and Moderato, in moderate time—not very fast nor very slow; Allegro, rather quick and lively; Vivace (pronounced vevarchay), quick and animated; Presto, very quick; Prestissimo, as quick as possible.'

# Questions.

What was the first fault I told you to avoid? (The habit of drawling in singing.)

What is the name of the little note placed against the minim c?



(The appoggiatura or grace note.)

What other fault were you told to avoid? (That of singing with the mouth shut, and the teeth closed.)

In what does the superiority of the voice over an instrument consist?

Is there any other fault that I told you to avoid? (That of singing in an even monotonous tone.)

What are the signs to which you should pay particular attention? (The F and P.)

Should the word grief or sorrow be sung piano, or forte?

Should plaintive or sorrowful music be quick, or slow?

What is this sign called? tr.

What is the meaning of the words-Adagio

Largo

Larghetto

Andantino

Andante

Allegretto

Moderato

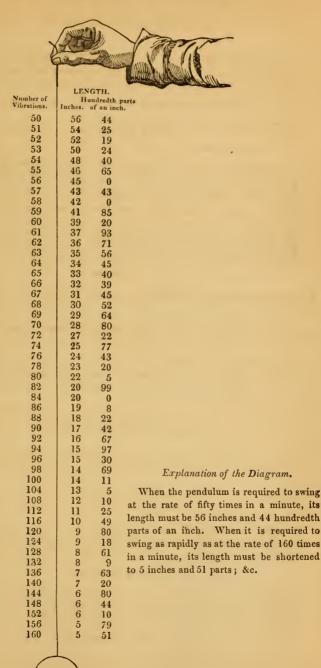
Allegro

Vivace

Presto

Prestissimo.

For a String Pendulum, or Cheap Metronome.



## VOCAL EXERCISES.

The following simple canons, and two part harmonies, are designed as vocal exercises, to follow, or, to be included in, the preceding lessons.

Each canon, and duet, is to be written on the board, and the pupils are to learn the air or melody well first, before they attempt to sing it in parts.



In singing the above, the teacher directs the second voices to count, 1, 2, 3, 4, silently, while the first voices are singing the first bar. The canon may be repeated several times. As a signal when to stop, the teacher holds up his hand about the middle of the air, and lets his hand fall when either the first or the second voices have come to the last note. All the voices should cease together, although some must necessarily end in the middle of the tune.

This canon is sometimes sung to the following couplet, adapted for young children:—

"Idle folks, who spare their trouble, Always make their labour double."

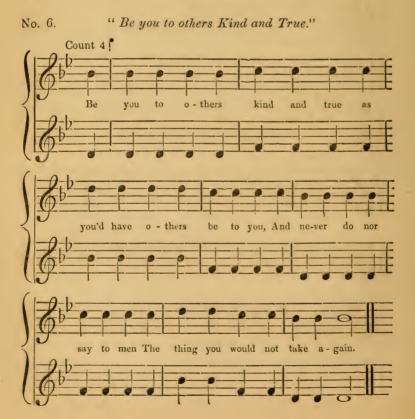
In German schools the same canon is sometimes sung to the word, "Hallelujah!"



The above canon is also sung by junior classes to the words,
"Little strokes fell great oaks."







# No. 7.

# " He that would thrive."



No. 8.

"Abroad, at home."



No. 9.

" Plough deep."

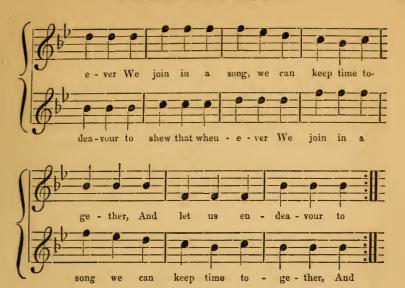


No. 10.

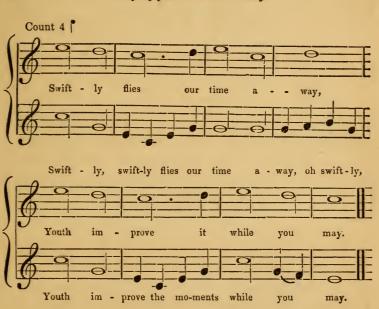
"Let us endeavour."

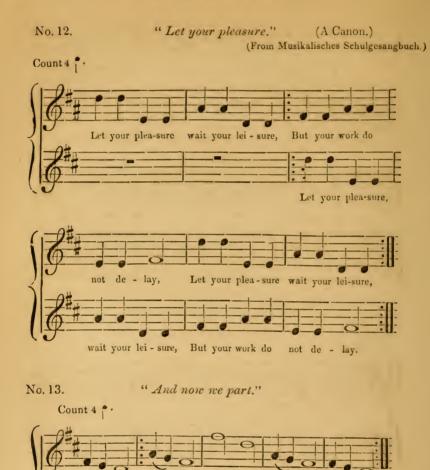
(A Canon.)





No. 11. "Swiftly flies our time away."





In singing the following canon, the pupils must be told to count silently 1, 2, 3, 4, in the bars where they have to rest. This canon is intended to be sung in four parts, and therefore when the pupils have learnt the air and time, they should arrange themselves in four divisions, so that the four parts may be sustained. The bars where the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th voices should come in are marked.

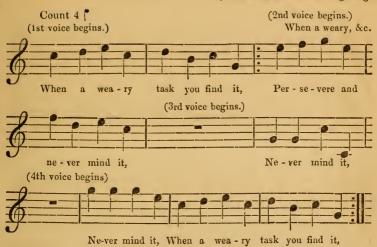
And now

part. good night! good night!

part, good night! good night!

No. 14.

"When a weary task you find it." (A Canon.)
(From Musikalisches Schulgesangbuch.)





No. 16.

Grace after Meat.



# RUDIMENTS

OF THE

SCIENCE OF HARMONY.



## RUDIMENTS

OF THE

# SCIENCE OF HARMONY,

OR

#### THOROUGH BASS.\*

The science of Harmony is not a study adapted for young children; but at the age of fifteen every youth evincing, by his love of music, a disposition to cultivate the art, ought to have some general knowledge of the principles of the science. Without this he will not be able to appreciate fully the merits of the finest compositions, nor to understand the meaning of much that he will meet with on the subject of music in works of general literature.

The following outline of the rudiments of harmony will not supersede more elaborate treatises, nor obviate the necessity of taking private lessons of a master, in the case of those who wish to write music professionally, but will perhaps suffice to convey (in an accessible form) as much information as is required by the great body of musical amateurs, and by those who merely wish to obtain the power of harmonising simple airs for their own amusement, or the gratification of children.

In schools, the Teacher must exercise his own judgment as to what parts of the subject may be adapted for class teaching, and what must be left to individual application.

## OF CHORDS.

The theory of harmony is very simple, for however numerous, and diversified, the chords employed by a modern composer may appear, they all consist of, or may be considered as derived from, *thirds* and *fifths*.

Strictly speaking, there are but two perfect chords, or concords, in music,—
the third and the fifth. They may be used separately, or combined, thus:—



<sup>\*</sup> The term 'Thorough Bass' is becoming obsolete. It originated in the use of figured basses, (explained page 90). To understand the nature of the chords belonging to every base note, and to know how to figure these chords was to have a thorough knowledge of basses, and of their harmonies. Hence the science of harmony itself was called 'thorough bass.'

The three notes of the third and fifth combined, form what is called a Triad.

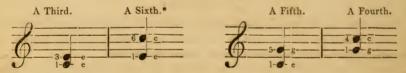
Music may be written in nine different parts for nine different voices, and yet all consist of thirds and fifths, as in the following example:—



One of the most curious facts in the science is the tendency of every sound to generate its own third and fifth, or produce them of itself. If the student take an opportunity, when the room is perfectly still, to strike any one of the base notes of a piano, and at the same time place his ear close to the sounding board, he will distinctly hear two other sounds, fainter than the first, and considerably shriller. These are the twelfth and seventeenth, or the fifth and third in the two upper scales, thus,



The sounds thus generated, or self-produced, are called *harmonics*, and include a minor seventh, which may usually be distinguished, besides the third and fifth, by a good ear. A sixth is the same as a third, only inverted or turned upside down, and a fourth is the same as an inverted fifth; for example:—



An eighth is not considered to form a chord when there are no intermediate notes, but is an unison with the first:—



<sup>•</sup> A minor sixth. The major third becomes by inversion a minor sixth, and a minor third by inversion a major sixth.

The second and seventh are not concords, but discords, which may be introduced occasionally for the sake of effect. The ninth is, of course, the same as a second:



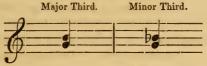
What is called the *common chord* consists simply of a perfect triad, or third and fifth combined, but it is generally written with the addition of the eighth.

THE COMMON CHORD IN DIFFERENT KEYS.

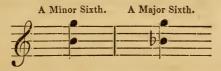


MAJOR AND MINOR CHORDS.

A third may be either *major* or *minor*, and in both cases the effect is considered equally perfect, although the minor third is, of course, only adapted for plaintive music.



The minor third becomes by inversion a major sixth.

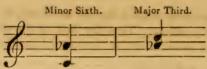


The augmented sixth is not considered a concord, but is one of the most pleasing discords employed in music. It contains the same number of tones and semitones as a minor seventh, although the two chords, or rather discords, are written differently.

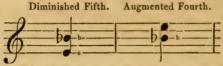
An augmented Sixth. A minor Seventh.



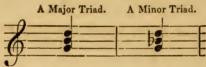
A minor sixth is considered as perfect a concord as a major sixth, because when inverted it becomes a major third.



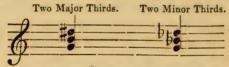
A minor fifth, or, more correctly speaking, a diminished fifth, although, when introduced with judgment, often producing a pleasing effect, is to be considered a discord. By inversion it becomes an augmented fourth, which is also a discord.



The third and fifth combined, we have said, form what is called a triad; but as the third may be major or minor, there are consequently major and minor triads.



Each of these triads forms a perfect consonant chord. The triad may be regarded as comprising not only a third and fifth, but also as consisting of two thirds; and it is a fact worth noting, that the two thirds in every perfect triad always consist of a major and a minor third. When the first third is major, the second must be minor. When the first third is minor, the second must be major. Two major thirds combined, or two minor thirds combined, produce a discord, although the latter is one of a pleasing character. The student should strike the notes upon a piano-forte to observe the difference of effect.

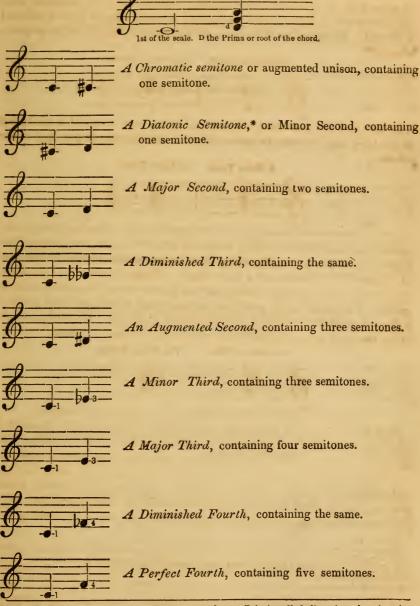


NAMES OF THE INTERVALS\* FORMED BY CHORDS AND DISCORDS.

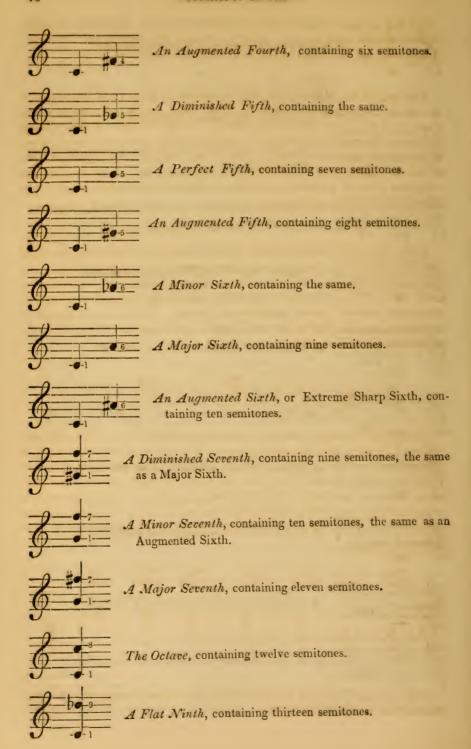
Before we proceed to any further explanation of the nature of chords and discords, it is necessary that the student should make himself acquainted with the names of the intervals between each, and with their quantities, in reference to the tones and semitones they contain. Here let us recall to mind that the interval between B and C, and between E and F, is always a semitone, unless one or other of those notes be raised or depressed by a sharp or a flat; while the interval between all the other degrees of the scale, next to each other, is a whole tone.

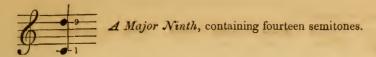
<sup>\*</sup> The term interval we have already defined to be the distance between one note and another. In speaking, however, of chords, every note in a chord is commonly termed an interval, including even the first note of the chord. Upon this subject musicians differ. We follow the opinion of those who say that it is a misnomer to call the first note of the chord an interval. The term is derived from the Latin intervallum, a ditch, and the preposition inter, between. There can be no inter in reference to one object, as in reference to two objects. One o'clock, for example, is not an interval; but we may speak of the interval between one and two o'clock. Hence a third is an interval, because it includes two sounds, and the semitones between them; but not the first or root of the chord.

The first of every chord is called the prima or root, to distinguish it from the first of the scale, merely. Thus the first of the scale in the following instance is c, but the prima or root of the annexed chord is D.



<sup>\*</sup> When the semitone changes its place on the staff, it is called diatonic; when it arises from sharpening or flattening the same note, without changing its place, it is called chromatic.

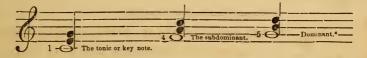




The student should take great pains to understand thoroughly the nature of the above intervals and to remember their exact names. He should strike them upon the piano frequently, until he can tell the name of each without looking at the notes; and he should examine music written in different keys, to analyze the intervals between the lowest base note, and the uppermost note of the air. It is especially important to make himself well acquainted with the difference between a minor seventh and a major seventh, upon which much depends, in the science of harmony.

# OF THE HARMONY BELONGING TO MAJOR SCALES.

Every full perfect chord contains simply a third and a fifth; but the third and the fifth may be derived from different roots. Sometimes the first of the scale may be considered the root, sometimes the fifth, and sometimes another note. According to a system adopted very generally in England, there are but three roots, otherwise called fundamental basses. These roots are the first, the fourth, and the fifth of the scale, known by the names of the tonic, the sub-dominant, and dominant.



According, however, to the system of the Abbé Vogler (a very high authority, followed by most German writers), every note may be treated as a root, or fundamental base, from which a third and fifth may be derived. The harmony of the major scale, therefore, comprises the following triads, some of which have major thirds, others minor. The triad formed upon the seventh of the scale is called a diminished triad; it consists of two minor thirds, and is not a perfect chord, but a discord, which requires what is termed resolution; a term we shall hereafter explain.



<sup>\*</sup> The reason why the fifth of the scale was called the dominant is supposed to be because of its predominance in old church music.

The same in the key of D.



The reason it is necessary to regard every triad as derived from some root is, that when the three notes forming the triad change positions—the third becoming by inversion a sixth, the fifth a fourth, and the first an eighth—they still belong to the same chord, form essentially the same harmony, and are better understood by their original names, than they would be by sometimes calling the third a sixth and the fifth a fourth.

Every triad may be employed in three different forms, as in the following example.



OF THE MODE OF USING THE TRIAD.

Suppose the note to be harmonised is D, we must consider to what triad it belongs. If we are in the key of c, it will be found that D belongs to three different triads—namely, the triad on the second, the fifth, and the seventh of the scale.



We may take then for the accompanying chords, the two notes belonging to any one of the above triads; but if in one part of the harmony we take G, for a third part we must take B, because G and D belong only to one of the triads.

If to accompany D in one part we take F, then the third part may be either A or B, because, as will be seen above, the two notes F and D belong to two of the above triads, and either may therefore be used.

If the note to be harmonised be E, we shall find that, in the key of C, E also belongs to three different triads, derived from the first, the third, and the sixth of the scale, thus:—



In harmonising B, therefore, for two parts, we may take, if we please, B; but in consequence of taking B, if we wish to add a third part, we must then take G, because B only belongs to one of the above triads, and determines, therefore, the chord to be employed: G, B, and A, for instance, will not be found together in any of the above triads, and would produce a discord.

On examining the scale, it will be seen that every note, in a similar manner, may be harmonised as belonging to three different triads. The harmony, however, most frequently used, is that of the triads belonging to the tonic, the sub-dominant, and the dominant. Every note of the scale may be treated as belonging to one of these three chords, as in the following example; but to employ them exclusively would produce a monotonous effect.

#### THE SCALE

Harmonised with the Tonic, Sub-dominant, and Dominant, in the base.

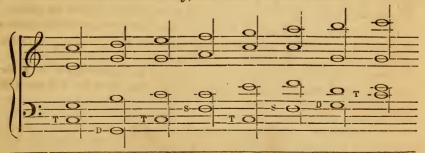


In writing music in three parts, three different notes may, as we have explained, be employed; but if a fourth part be added, it must be done either by introducing a dissonant note for the sake of some particular effect, or by doubling one of the three notes. When one of the three notes is doubled, the note to be preferred is generally the first, or root of the chord, sometimes the fifth, and, but very seldom, the third.

Without using any dissonant notes, it is possible to harmonise the scale for four voices with the chords only of the tonic, sub-dominant, and dominant, and with their roots in the base. The scale may be harmonised much more effectively by employing, as well, other chords; but the student will find it a good exercise hereafter to harmonise the scale upon this principle, without having the following example before him.\*

#### THE SCALE

Harmonised for four parts, with the chords of the Tonic, Sub-dominant, and Dominant only, and their roots in the base.



<sup>\*</sup> Taking care to avoid consecutive fifths and octaves, to be hereafter explained.

The preceding is an instance of what is called dispersed harmony. Harmonies written in the following manner would be called close harmonies.



The example we have given of the scale harmonised may be taken as an illustration of what is termed harmony in *simple counterpoint*. Formerly, when notes were written without stems, they were called *points*, and to harmonise in simple counterpoint was to put point counter to, or against, point; that is to say, note against note. The same note may be harmonised with any number of notes belonging to the same chord, as in the following instance; but the harmony in that case would not, of course, be called simple counterpoint.



OF DISCORDS.

It cannot be too often repeated, in order that the fact may be well impressed upon the mind, that every full perfect chord contains simply a third and a fifth. When any note is introduced not belonging to the triad, in its first, second, or third form, the chord is changed into a discord.

Discords are greatly used in music, because, in dwelling upon them occasionally, the sweetness of the perfect chord is more fully felt by contrast.

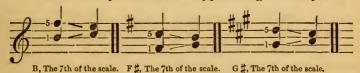
The term *chord* is a general term, which is often made to include *discords*, so that discords are frequently termed *chords* by musicians, in speaking generally on the subject; but as it is desirable in an elementary work to use the greatest precision of language, we shall here never use the term chord when we are speaking of harmonies containing a dissonant note.

All discords follow one general rule: they require to be succeeded by the harmony of the perfect chord. However pleasing the occasional introduction of a discord may be, the ear is not satisfied to rest upon it—it requires to be conducted to a state of repose. Music without occasional discords is tame and spiritless, but nothing would be more unpleasing than music consisting entirely of discords; and for the same reason, when, in a composition, discords are allowed to predominate over chords, however scientific the music may

be considered, it is bad in principle and in effect, and more especially so in vocal music.

The first discord we have to notice is that of the diminished fifth, in the triad on the seventh of the scale. Like every other discord, it must be followed by a perfect chord, and this is called the resolution of the discord. The dissonant note in this case is the fifth, called a diminished fifth, because, as an interval, it contains one semitone less than a perfect fifth. The manner in which it resolves is by descending one degree in the staff.

Resolution of the diminished fifth in different keys.



This example will serve to illustrate the rule which applies very generally, excepting in minor keys, to the seventh of the scale. The seventh of the scale in major keys requires to be followed by the eighth, from which it is but a semitone distant. If the student play through the scale of c till he comes to B, he will find that the ear would not be satisfied with resting there, nor with descending to A, but that the natural progression of the note is to c. So in harmony, when the seventh from the key note occurs in one of the under parts, it still requires to ascend to the eighth. Hence, in the above example, B, the seventh, ascends to c; F, the seventh, ascends to a; G, the seventh, ascends to A. The rule, however, excepting when accompanied by a diminished fifth, is not to be regarded as an invariable one. This tendency of the seventh to rise to the eighth occasions it to be called the leading note of the scale, because it leads on to the tonic or key note.

The *third* of the diminished triad is free to ascend or descend, and every other note of every other triad in the scale is free to ascend or descend, and is bound by no rule in that respect.

#### OF THE DOMINANT SEVENTH.

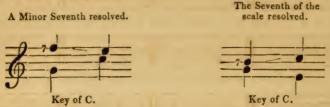
This discord, of which great use is made, is identically the same with the diminished triad, with the addition only of a dominant base. When the dominant is taken for the root, then the diminished fifth becomes a minor seventh, counting from the dominant, and is hence called

A Dominant Seventh.



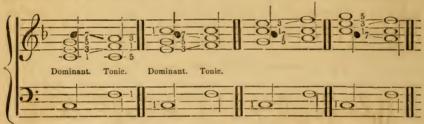
It is important to notice that the dominant seventh is a minor seventh, and

not a major seventh, like the seventh of the scale; or, in other words, a whole tone, and not a semitone, from the eighth. Were it the major seventh of the scale, it would be a leading note to the eighth; but as a minor seventh, it requires to descend to the sixth.



The diminished fifth, as part of a triad, may be employed in three different positions. The dominant seventh may, in like manner, be employed in four different positions. In the following example the dominant seventh is written as a crotchet, while the other notes are in minims, that it may be the more easily distinguished by the eye.

The four positions of the Dominant Seventh, with its resolutions.



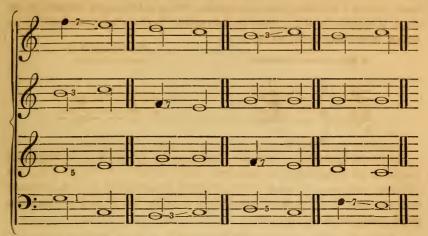
In this example the two roots of the dominant and tonic are placed in the base, but the third, fifth, or seventh may be placed in the base instead of the dominant root, if preferred. The discord of the dominant seventh is often played thus:—



This example should be played by the student on the piano, in order that he may learn to recognise the dissonant note which forms at once the diminished fifth and dominant seventh, whenever he hears it, without having the music before him.

The following is an example of the dominant seventh, with its resolutions written in score. This is a term used to distinguish music, written with all the parts complete, from music written or printed with each part in a separate book.

#### Dominant Seventh.



Another discord, which is often used with very good effect, is called *The Diminished Seventh*.—The discord of the *diminished* seventh differs only from the discord of the *dominant* seventh in this, that the intervals of the discord are diminished, or lessened, by raising the dominant root a semitone. The diminished seventh, however, only occurs in minor keys.

The Dominant Seventh and Diminished Seventh.



In each of the above positions of the diminished seventh, the original root c, being raised a semitone, becomes c #, the seventh of p minor.

The discords of the diminished seventh may be repeated in the same position in the treble with the third, fifth, and seventh in the base, as in the instances we gave of the dominant seventh. The following is an example of the diminished seventh, in the key of A minor.



The discord called the added ninth, is formed by adding a third to the dominant seventh. The discord is then composed of two triads; one having a major third, the other a minor. The dissonant notes are the seventh and the ninth, both of which must descend one degree.

The added Ninth with its resolution.



The added ninth may be employed with or without the seventh, and may be introduced in five different positions, but the most effective form of the discord is that of the above example.

What in England has been called the chord of the added sixth, upon a subdominant root, is by German writers not considered as a distinct chord, but merely as the triad belonging to the second of the scale, in its second form.



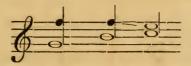
Besides the rule we have mentioned, that every discord requires to be resolved, or followed by the perfect chord, there is another, equally important;—it must be prepared; that is to say, the dissonant note must not be suddenly or abruptly introduced; it must first be heard as a consonant in the preceding chord. With these two rules of preparation and resolution every note of the scale may be introduced as a dissonant note thus:—

The Ninth prepared as a Fifth and resolved as an Eighth.



To the rule that all discords require to be prepared, by being first heard as consonants in the preceding harmony, there is one exception. The rule does not apply to the diminished fifth or dominant seventh. The note forming these dissonances may always be introduced abruptly, or without preparation. Discords prepared and resolved as in the preceding example are sometimes called discords by suspension, but the term appears to be wrongly used. By the best German writers, discords by suspension, or suspended discords, are only those repeated once, or oftener, before their resolution; the resolution

being, in this case, correctly described as suspended. In the following example, F, the dissonant note, is suspended in the second chord, and resolved in the third.



The following is an example of *interrupted resolution*, or resolution by retardation. The f, which should descend one degree, is first interrupted by D; but finally it descends upon E.



The peculiar effect of resolutions by retardation may be best studied in the works of Sebastian Bach.

When the diminished fifth or the dominant seventh occurs in two parts of the same chord, one may ascend, provided the other resolves by descending.



Discords arising out of what are called augmented intervals are an exception to the general rule. Instead of resolving by descending one degree on the staff, they resolve generally by ascending one degree. In Major keys the only augmented interval that can arise (without accidentals are introduced) is that of the augmented fourth, on the fourth of the scale. It is, as before stated, an inversion of the diminished fifth.



The note forming the augmented fourth, it will be observed, is the seventh of the scale, or leading note, which is the reason it must, as a general rule, resolve by ascending.

In Minor keys there are other augmented intervals, but before we notice them it will be necessary to speak of

#### THE HARMONY OF MINOR KEYS.

German writers usually make a distinction between the melodic minor scale, and the harmonic minor scale.

The *Melodic* minor scale is that in which the progression of the notes produces the most pleasing effect, ascending from the first to the eighth. The *harmonic* minor scale is that in which the notes are considered solely in reference to the chords belonging to them.

The Melodic Minor Scale.



The Harmonic Minor Scale.



For the various reasons assigned for introducing n # in the harmonic minor scale, and for not sharpening the r, we must refer the student to the works of the most learned writer on the subject of harmony—the Abbé Vogler. His system, although not generally known in this country, in Germany, the classic land of music, has a higher reputation than any other.

The harmonic scale, as above written, comprises the following chords:-

# Triads of the Harmonic Minor Scale.



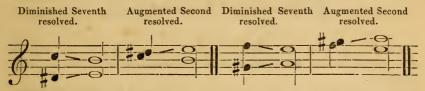
It will be seen that the above triads contain three diminished fifths, namely, one on the *second*, one on the *raised fourth*, and one on the *seventh* of the scale. These diminished fifths become, by inversion, augmented fourths, in which case they resolve by ascending, as in preceding instances.



The minor harmonic scale contains a diminished third upon p , or the raised fourth of the scale. The diminished third becomes by inversion an augmented sixth. One resolves by ascending, the other by descending.\*



Minor keys also contain two diminished sevenths, one on the raised fourth, the other on the seventh of the scale. These become, by inversion, augmented seconds.



No diminished interval requires preparation, but all augmented intervals must be prepared by the dissonant note being heard as a consonant in the preceding chord, and the preparation and resolution must be in the same scale and in the same part: the preparation must not be given to one voice, the dissonance to another, and the resolution to a third.

An augmented Second prepared and resolved...



An augmented Fourth prepared and resolved.



<sup>\*</sup> This triad is termed by Callcott the diatonic dissonant triad, out of which, he says, arise two altered triads, one with the third flattened, the other with the third sharpened. These are here termed the Hard diminished triad, and the Double diminished triad.

#### CADENCES.

By a cadence is understood the preparation of a close; thus the last two bars of the National Anthem form a cadence:—-



The harmony upon which a simple cadence is founded is that of the sub-dominant, dominant, and tonic, thus:—



A better effect is, in most cases, produced by introducing the harmony of the second of the scale in the place of the sub-dominant, as in the following instance:—



The above are called *authentic cadences*, by which term is meant, cadences in which the chord of the dominant immediately *precedes* that of the tonic.

The plagal cadence is that in which the tonic harmony is preceded by the chord of the sub-dominant.



An excellent effect is generally produced in a cadence by the introduction of the dominant seventh.



A half cadence is when the cadence ends upon the chord of the dominant, instead of upon that of the tonic. A half cadence may occur at the termination of a phrase, or a passage in the music; but at the final termination of the composition the last chord should be always the tonic, and so contrived, if possible, that it should end with the full chord of three, five, eight, in its first form. When the third and fifth cannot both be introduced, the third should always be preferred to the fifth. There are many ways of varying a cadence, but to judge of these it is necessary to study the works of the best composers.

## PROGRESSION OF HARMONIES.

In harmonising it is not sufficient that every note in the second, or in the base, should be in accordance with the note above it in the air, but the progression of the parts must be considered. Not only the air, but every part, whether a second, third, or fourth, should have a melody of its own; the voice proceeding not by sudden skips, and abrupt transitions, but by easy intervals. In vocal music this is of the greatest importance—much more so indeed than in instrumental. The same progression of harmonies that may be easily performed upon the organ or piano, and which may seem satisfactory, will often appear forced and unnatural when sung by voices. Hence it has often happened that clever writers of organ and piano-forte music have utterly failed, when writing glee and choral music. The following is an instance (an extreme one) of a false progression in the second part.



Although, in this example, there is not a note given to the second part which does not accord with the note above in the air, the effect produced by the sudden skips up and down to extreme parts of the staff, is as disagreeable as if every note were a dissonance. The second should be written after this manner:



It is of so much importance that each part of the harmony should be written flowingly, that it is often better to sacrifice one or more of the intervals of the perfect chord, and to have the harmony less full than it might otherwise be, than to let the melody of each part be, in the slightest degree, broken or interrupted. The superiority of Mozart over all other composers consisted not so much in the richness of his harmonies as in the beauty of the melodies which were breathed into every part of his score, whether written for a second soprano or for a tenor violin.

Another rule to be observed is, that the *accented* parts of a composition, or the notes most dwelt upon, are the parts where the harmony should be the most perfect. The full chord is in its most perfect state in its first form, with the root in the base.



When the third is used as the lowest note, or the fifth, the effect is less perfect, and should be confined as much as possible to rapid movements, and not to what may be called the *resting places* of a composition.

There are some notes, especially in quick melodies, which do not require to be harmonised at all: these are the notes merely used for connecting the more important intervals together. They are termed passing notes—for instance,



<sup>•</sup> If we follow nature closely, we should put the fifth next the root, as in the order of the self-generated sounds called harmonics. The fifth, however, without the third will be found to produce a less perfect harmony than the third without the fifth; but, when possible, both should be heard in the last chord.

In this example the quavers are passing notes. Were they notes requiring to be dwelt upon, they could not be harmonised with a in the base.

Among the false progressions in harmony, or progressions condemned by musicians as producing a bad effect, are what are termed consecutive fifths and octaves. By these are to be understood fifths and octaves, ascending or descending in the scale consecutively.

# Consecutive Fifths.



Consecutive thirds, fourths, sixths, and sevenths, are allowed, and often produce a very agreeable effect; but not consecutive fifths. The following are not considered consecutive fifths, but merely repetitions of the same chord.



Consecutive octaves are only disallowed when the intermediate intervals of the chord are employed. The following would not be considered, in the objectionable sense, as consecutive octaves, but as an example of

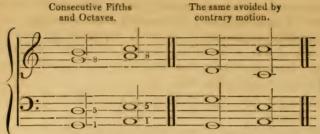


But if the intermediate parts of the chord were introduced, the octaves would be disallowed, as producing, with the consecutive fifths, bad harmony.

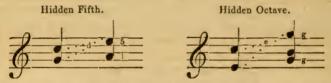
# Consecutive Fifths and Octaves.



To avoid consecutive fifths and octaves, which the student will at first find very troublesome (and which give much more offence to some critics than more serious faults), the parts may be made to proceed by contrary motion. And indeed, without reference to consecutive fifths and octaves, when music is written in two, three, or more parts, they should not, as a general rule, move much together. If one or two of the parts ascend, a third should descend; and when one or more of the parts have a rapid flowing passage, a third should rest upon one long note.



Besides consecutive fifths and octaves, there are hidden fifths and octaves, which are equally to be avoided. They are called hidden because one of the parts, in its progress from one note to another, is felt to sing through the note which, if expressed, would form a consecutive fifth or octave.



When the upper part does not move by skips, but from one degree to another, hidden fifths and octaves are allowed, as in the following instance:—



And even when the upper part does move by skips, hidden fifths are allowed, when the chord or triad employed in the harmony is not changed, but the notes merely move from one part of the chord to another.\*



#### SEQUENCES.

This term is another name for consecutive chords, but chords which are allowed to succeed each other ascending or descending, and which often produce a rich effect.



<sup>\*</sup> Hidden fifths are generally allowed when the last fifth belongs to a major triad, but never when the harmony moves from a major to a minor triad.

It is a rule in sequences that they must preserve throughout the same intervals with which they commence. For example, if they commence with a third and a fifth, thirds and fifths must be continued throughout.



A Sequence of Sevenths in four parts.



### MODULATION.

When music is removed from the key in which it may be written to another, and the whole of the notes are played or sung one or more degrees higher or lower than before, the change is called a transposition.

When a piece of music is played partly in one key, and we pass suddenly and abruptly to another, the change is called a transition.

When the music, beginning in one key, glides gracefully and insensibly into another, the change is called a modulation.

The art of modulating into different keys is very important, for the richest and most varied effects in harmony are produced by a change of keys. To pass suddenly from one key into another, without preparation, is only allowed when the object is to startle or to express the effect of surprise,—for, in ordinary cases, the abrupt transition is painful to the ear,—but a change of keys, produced by means of modulation, is extremely pleasing; it enables the composer to give all the effect of novelty, even to the repetition of the same movement. The following is an example of transposition.



We have here a movement written first in the key of c, and the same movement afterwards transposed, and written in the key of D. The difference of the two movements is merely a difference of pitch—one being a little higher than the other. If in the middle of the movement, as written in c, we were to pass suddenly into the key of D, and finish in that key, the change would be a transition, and a most disagreeable transition it would be.

In order to glide gradually and insensibly from one key to another, without any interruption of the music, or, in other words, to *modulate*, it is necessary to understand and remember the following rule:—

In modulation we must pass into a new key, through a chord common to both keys.

For example, the subdominant of c is the tonic of F; when, therefore, we are playing the chord of the subdominant of c, we may, if we please, consider ourselves in the key of F, and treat the succeeding chords as belonging to that key:—



The dominant of c is also the tonic of G, and therefore, when we are in the chord of the dominant, we may treat all the succeeding chords as belonging to the key of G.



Another rule for modulation is, that we may pass into a new key, through the dominant chord belonging to it, generally with the dominant seventh.



In modulating back again from the key of D to C the same principle may be followed, but the process is shorter. The tonic D may be treated as the dominant of G, and the tonic G as the dominant of C.



In modulating in this manner, by means of the dominant, into different keys above or below, it is necessary to pass through all the intermediate keys. Thus to get from c with no sharp, into E with four sharps, we must pass through G with one sharp, p with two sharps, and A with three sharps.

There is no difficulty in finding out the dominant of the next key above, because the dominant root of the next key is always the next note, ascending, to the tonic of the key we are in. For instance, in the first of the two modulations we have given, D, the dominant of G, which is the next key to C upwards, is the next note to C; and A, the dominant of D, which is the next key to G, is the next note to G.

When we are not harmonising, but require the melody to modulate from one key to another, it is done, with respect to the keys above, by raising the fourth of the key a semitone, which then becomes a leading note to the tonic of the next key; the tonic being the next note. The raised fourth of every major key is to be regarded as the major seventh of the next key.



This corresponds with the rule that in modulation we pass through the dominant of the next key. For the r # in the first instance, if harmonised, would

be the third of the dominant D, and the c # in the second instance would be the third of the dominant A.

To modulate back in the melody to the key below, it is necessary to flatten or lower a semitone the major seventh, or leading note of the key we are in. For instance, we may modulate thus from a major to c.



Here again the same rule applies, that it is necessary in modulating to pass through the chord of the dominant. For, in harmonising, the note lowered a semitone in the keys of D, G, and C, will be found to be the minor seventh of the dominant.

#### FIGURED BASSES.

The perfect chord, and all the discords we have described, are known to musicians not only by the names we have given, but by figures, which indicate the position in which the chord or discord may be used. Formerly it was customary not to treat a chord as derived from but one root, which might or might not be in the base, but to consider the base note always as the root, whatever that note might be. Thus, while the perfect Triad in its first form was called, rightly enough, the chord of  $\frac{5}{3}$ , in its second form, although essentially the same chord, it was called the chord of the sixth or  $\frac{6}{3}$ , and in its third form the chord of the  $\frac{6}{4}$ ; the intervals being, in these cases, always counted from the base note.



In old music it will be observed that the composers, to save themselves trouble, often inserted over the base the figures of the chord intended to be played, instead of inserting the notes themselves. Thus:—



These figures mean that the chords to be played are those given in the preceding example, and which may be played either by the left hand, or right hand, or both; but this practice of writing is now very properly discontinued, and the notes of the full chord designed to be played are always inserted upon the staff. As, however, the different chords and discords are still known by names derived from the old figured basses, it is necessary that the student should make himself familiar with them.

The discord of the dominant seventh in its first form is called generally by the same name, and in figured basses is marked simply by a 7. In its second form it is called the chord of  ${6 \atop 5}$ ; in its third the chord of  ${4 \atop 5}$  in its

fourth the chord of the 4 2



When in figured basses it was necessary to indicate that one of the notes should be raised a semitone, it was done by drawing a line through the figure referring to that note, thus—8. In other cases, when the same note was to be depressed, a flat, or a natural, was placed against the figure. The four forms of the

diminished seventh are written thus:  $-\frac{7}{4}$   $\stackrel{6}{5}$   $\stackrel{6}{4}$   $\stackrel{4}{4}$   $\stackrel{4}{4}$ .



7 6 6 7

The discord of the added ninth is called, in its different forms, 9 6 5 4 6
7,5,4,3,4
3 3 2 2



Other discords, of which we have not thought it necessary to give examples, are known in the same manner, by names derived from their figured basses.

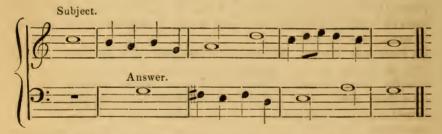
#### DOUBLE COUNTERPOINT.

In harmonising an air it is usual to treat it as the principal melody of the composition; and, to keep it higher than the rest. The highest part will always predominate over every other, and, therefore, none of the notes given to the second, third, or fourth voices, should rise above the first, unless it be intended that the melody of their part should, for the time, take the lead. In most collections of psalm tunes harmonised for four voices, the parts are so written that the tenor and counter appear above the air; but the air in these collections is intended to be sung by treble voices, and the other parts by the voices of men, in which case the air would still be the uppermost part.\*

By double counterpoint musicans mean harmonising an air in such a manner that it may sometimes be given to the base, and sometimes to the tenor, and yet produce an equally good effect.

#### FUGUES.

A fugue is that kind of composition in which the second or third part imitates the first, by following it at a certain distance, but starting upon the dominant or fifth of the scale, instead of the key note. The air which leads off is called the subject; that which follows in the base is called the answer.



The greatest fugue writer the world ever produced was Sebastian Bach, who was contemporary with Handel.

A canon is a species of fugue: the different parts follow and imitate each

<sup>\*</sup> Ignorance of this rule is one of the reasons why congregational singing often produces an unpleasing effect, especially when there is not a majority of female singers in the Church or Chapel. A clerk leads the air while the tenor and counter-tenor voices sing their parts a third and fifth above him. Hence the air has the grumbling effect of a base, while the inversion of the chord, contrary to the design of the composer, sometimes produces consecutive fifths and octaves.

In Germany, Chorales, a word which answers very nearly to psalm tunes harmonised, instead of being written for one treble voice, with an alto for a second, and a tenor and base, are written for two treble voices, with a tenor and base. The four parts thus equally divided between male and female singers, produce a much better effect.

other, but the answer is not required to be founded on the dominant. The endless canon is one in which the same parts repeat ad libitum.

#### PEDAL HARMONIES.

These are peculiar to organ music. The pedal note is a long note, generally, but not invariably, the dominant, which is sustained sometimes through a considerable number of bars, in which a variety of chords and discords are played, into each of which the pedal note enters as a component part.

#### THE ENHARMONIC SCALE.

According to the strict theory of musical progression A# is not always to be considered precisely the same note as Bb, although on the piano-forte there is no difference. In the progression of sounds, a delicate ear will detect, besides semi or half tones, quarter tones, and three-quarter tones. And hence arises what is called the enharmonic scale, or a scale including the minutest possible gradations of sound—gradations which may be expressed on the violin by a first-rate artist, but not on the piano-forte, and which cannot even be correctly written with the present system of musical notation. The enharmonic scale is therefore of little or no practical use.

Out of this fact, however,—that in a musical progression the ear requires to proceed (although generally without being conscious of it) sometimes by quarter tones (it is said by even smaller intervals), and three-quarter tones, instead of by semitones, arises the impossibility of tuning perfectly a keyed instrument like the piano-forte or organ. In tuning, it is found that when all the fifths are perfect, the thirds are not, which are of more consequence than the fifths. To tune the notes correctly it is necessary in some cases to flatten the fifths, or leave them comparatively out of tune; hence the organ and piano-forte are termed imperfect instruments. The imperfection is called the moolf, and its distribution among different notes little used, so that the defect may be the least observable, is called the temperament.

The enharmonic change is when, without altering the pitch of the key note, we change it from a key written with sharps to one written with flats, or vice versa. It is, in fact, merely a different mode of writing the same sounds, the key of gb being for all practical purposes the same as that of ff; but the rules of harmony require that when an interval is changed enharmonically it must frequently be followed by a different chord to that which would otherwise have been employed. Thus an augmented fourth changed enharmonically becomes a diminished fifth. The one would have ascended, the other must descend.



## OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF MELODIES.

Melody ranks before harmony. A good melody will please whether harmonised or not; but a piece of harmony, however scientific, if the air be indifferent, is rarely listened to with much pleasure. A bad melody may be greatly improved by being harmonised, but the perfection of the art is when good melodies and good harmonies are blended together. A person who has no talent for writing original and beautiful melodies, can never make a great composer, however great may be his knowledge of the science of harmony. Hence every lover of music should study the construction of melodies—a branch of the subject generally too much neglected. Their construction is much more artificial than would at first be supposed. The principal features of a melody are, the subject, consisting of a number of short phrases and a cadence. A phrase, sometimes called a Cæsure and Figure, is a passage seldom extending through more than two or three bars, containing a musical thought or idea which may be imitated, varied, and changed at the will of the composer.

The National Anthem contains five phrases and two cadences; each phrase occupying but two bars.



The same thought is again taken up and varied in three different ways, in the second part of the tune, concluding finally with another cadence. To compose good melodies, however, it is not sufficient to string musical phrases together, however scientifically. Good music must be written upon the same principle as good poetry. The heart must be made to speak. Poetry that consists of words or phrases, that appeals to no kindred feeling, or that awakens no strong emotion, is always of an inferior character; and so it is with music. A good composer will give himself up to the inspiration of his feelings. If writing music to words expressive of affliction, he will endeavour to feel like one afflicted. If the words he expressive of triumph, he will endeavour to call up in his mind the emotions of joy and exultation. According to his ability to do this (and it is an art to be acquired), will be his power of producing works such as are commonly ascribed to genius alone. The passions will always find utterance; but the passionless cannot express the language of the passions.

Rhythm in music is the same thing as metre in poetry. In a poem one line contains a certain number of syllables or feet, and it is necessary the next line, or one not very far from it, should contain the same number of syllables or feet. So in music. One phrase containing a certain number of bars, requires to be answered by another containing the same number of bars; and, as in poetry, there are different kinds of metres—sometimes called long metre, short metre, common metre, &c., so in music there are different kinds of rhythms, to understand which it is necessary to study the works of different composers.

#### APPLICATION OF THE FOREGOING RULES.

The musical student who is able to afford the expense of private instruction, under an eminent master, will not require, in an elementary work, any practical directions how to proceed, for every master has a system of his own, which he will of course expect his pupils to follow; but to the humbler class among the lovers of music, and those who cannot afford to devote so much time to the study as is often spent over a tedious, progressive series of lessons (and for such especially we write), we would recommend the following course.

First, he should endeavour thoroughly to understand the principles we have attempted to explain, relative to the science; then let him take a simple air, like that of the National Anthem, and, with the assistance of a piano, endeavour to harmonise it for two equal voices. In so doing he will discover that the chief intervals to be employed are thirds and sixths, but he must find out by his ear alone, when a sixth will produce a better effect than a third, and when a third should be used as a tenth. The choice of a third, sixth, or tenth, or of any other consonant interval, must always depend upon the progression of the air: there is no rule that can be laid down on the subject. When he has written his second, he should look it carefully through to see that he has not introduced any consecutive fifths or octaves, and then get some person to sing it with him. If the effect be such as to please his unscientific friends, he has made one step, which will encourage him to persevere, and in subsequent efforts he will find himself rapidly improve. When he has learned to harmonise tolerably well for two voices, he should take the same airs and harmonise them for three, and afterwards for four and five voices; and not till he is somewhat expert in doing so should he attempt any original composition. With respect to them, he should commence in the same manner, first with trying to write simple airs, such as might give pleasure to childhood, then with simple duets; and never attempt, until he has gained considerable knowledge by practice, the higher order of compositions, lest he be discouraged by a failure, which, at the beginning of his career, would be inevitable. If he wish to write good vocal music, for three or four voices, without instrumental accompaniments, he should study the compositions of Webbe, who must be placed at the head of English glee\* writers. Next to Webbe, Callcott. Both these writers were eminent for their skill in that peculiar description of music in which England has neither been excelled, nor equalled, by any nation in the world.

<sup>\*</sup> The old madrigals also should be studied, many of which are very beautiful. A madrigal is a peculiar kind of chorus, written usually in six parts, without accompaniment. Glees are usually written for three or four voices only, the parts not intended to be doubled, or sung as choruses.

The professional musician will find it of great importance to learn to write music without the assistance of the piano-an art which most great composers have attained. This is not to be done by simply studying the rules of harmony, but by cultivating the memory of sounds, so that the effect of different intervals may be heard, in the mind's ear, the moment they are seen on paper. To acquire this power the young composer should begin by attempting to write down from memory different airs, and correcting them afterwards with the piano or some other instrument. He should then procure a person to play to him the seconds or basses of the same airs, and write them down also, depending only upon his ear; having no copy before him. Then the same airs played with their full chords. In this manner he will learn gradually to commit his musical ideas to paper as readily and as correctly as he would put thoughts into words; but the art is not to be attained without considerable practice. Beethoven wrote many of his later works after he had become wholly deaf; but he could not have done so, had he not first learned to retain the memory of the sounds he had once, and oftentimes heard.

We shall conclude this brief outline of the rudiments of harmony, by an extract from the ablest paper\* that has yet appeared on the subject, written upon the article "Music" in the last edition (the edition of 1837), in the "En-

cyclopedia Britannica."

"To attempt to make any one a composer of music by means only of dry treatises upon intervals and chords, is just as absurd as to attempt to make a poet by means of Bysshe's 'Art of Poetry,' or other books of the kind, Genius, and observation, and a careful study of the best models, are really the only things which can ever make a good poet, or a good painter, or a good composer of music. The aid of a skilful master will be of great importance, if he be not wrapped up in a theory. And in the absence of a master, two or three of the best modern treatises on the subject, such as Reicha's and Cherubini's. may help the student to understand the construction of those models of composition which he ought to have constantly before him. But there is nothing so useless as spending whole years in the vain study of what is called thorough base, although it is still considered by too many persons as comprehending the whole art and science of music.

"In the works of the greatest composers are found many passages of excellent effect, though prohibited by the rules of the theorists. Such being the case, we would again earnestly urge the student to form an extensive acquaintance with the best models of the art, rather than to trust to any theories on the subject. He ought never to give up his reason and his judgment to any theoretical authorities. If he do, he will become timid and uncertain-whatever he meets with different from what his dry rules have taught him will perplex and terrify him. His energies will be paralyzed, and he will be incapable of producing any thing but cold, feeble, and formal music. He ought to keep in view that in music nothing is out of rule except what offends the ear, the taste, and the judgment, but that he must not attempt to imitate the freedom and bold effects of the greatest masters, until he has acquired great knowledge and command of his materials."

<sup>.</sup> Since writing the above, the article referred to, written by Mr. Graham, has been published in a separate form.

# THE FIRST CLASS TUNE-BOOK.

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The following airs may all be sung as songs without the accompanying parts, or they may be sung with the second part only, omitting the third, or base.

The seconds will not be found too difficult to be acquired by any child of seven years of age, accustomed to sing in classes, but it will be necessary to teach both the air and the seconds separately, before singing them together, as children when attempting to sing both parts, without knowing either perfectly, are apt to pass from one into the other.

The base, when not written expressly for an instrument, may be sung by the schoolmaster, or by the father, or elder brother in a family. In some cases the third vocal part, although written in the base clef (for the convenience of pianoforte players), may be taken by boys or girls of fourteen. When, however, the third part, if sung by a treble voice, would rise above the air, it is intended solely for a base voice.

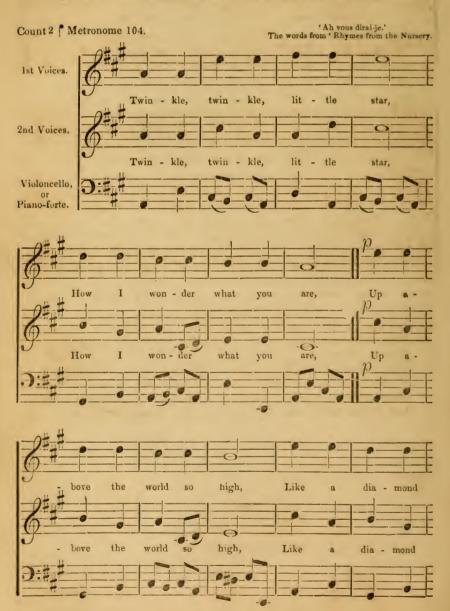
To perform the airs upon the piano-forte, children should be directed to play from the top and bottom staves, paying little or no attention to the middle staff, by which they might be confused.

In singing, to pitch the notes B and C with the help only of a flute,

the teacher must first play the upper B or C, and then fall an octave with the voice.

# FIRST CLASS TUNE BOOK.

# No. 1.—TWINKLE, TWINKLE, LITTLE STAR.





2.

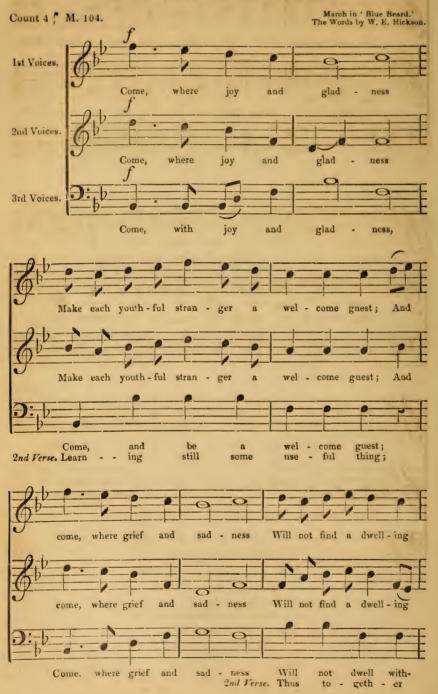
When the blazing sun is gone, When he nothing shines upon, Then you show your little light, Twinkle, twinkle, all the night. Twinkle, twinkle, little star, How I wonder what you are. 3.

Then the traveller in the dark,
Thanks you for your tiny spark;
He could not see which way to go,
If you did not twinkle so.
Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are.

4.

In the dark blue sky you keep,
While you through my curtains peep
And you never shut your eye,
Till the sun is in the sky.
Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are.

### No. 2.—WELCOME TO SCHOOL.





Thus, our days employing,

We are always learning some useful thing;
And, these pursuits enjoying,

Merrily together we will sing.

Tho' in our sports we take delight;

2.

We also love to read and write; And those who teach us, too, we prize, Who strive to make us good and wise.

# No. 3.—COME AND SEE HOW HAPPILY.





2.

Al - ways join - ing cheer - ful - ly

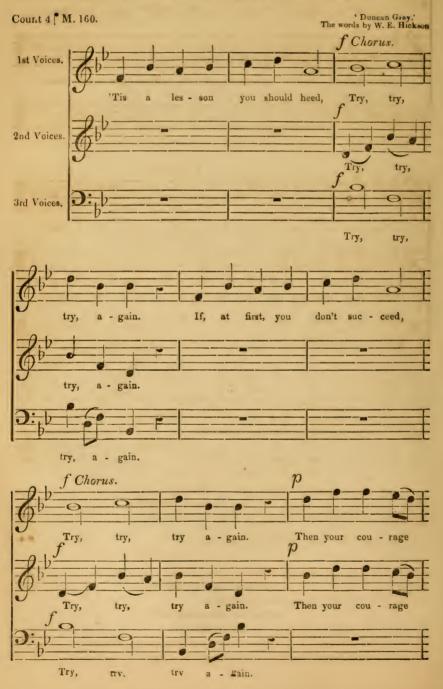
We improve the present hour,
For swift it flies:
Youth is but a passing flower,
Which blooms, and dies.
But with harmless mirth and song,
Time with us still glides along.

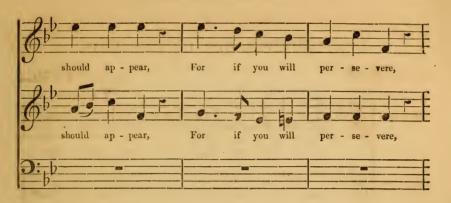
work

or

play.

# No. 4.—PERSEVERANCE, OR TRY AGAIN.







2.

Once, or twice, though you should fail,

Try again.

It you would at last prevail.

Try again.

If we strive, 'tis no disgrace, Though we may not win the race; What should you do in that case?

Try again.

3.

If you find your task is hard,

Try again.

Time will bring you your reward,

Try again.

All that other folks can do, Why, with patience, should not you? Only keep this rule in view,

Try again.

## No. 5.—IMPROVE THE PASSING HOURS.



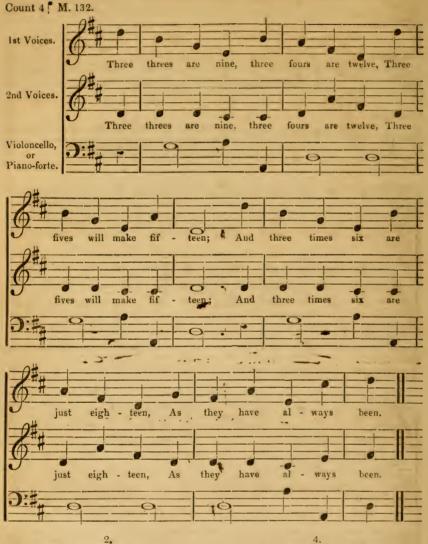






2.
Repine not, if from labour
Your health and comfort spring,
Work hard, and help your neighbour,
And merrily, merrily, merrily sing.
Store not your minds with fable,
To truth your homage bring,
Do all the good you are able.
And merrily, merrily, merrily sing.

## No. 6.—MULTIPLICATION TABLE. FIRST PART.



And three times seven are twenty-one, Three eights are twenty-four; And three times nine are twenty-seven, You'll find they make no more.

Three tens are thirty, and three elevens Will make just thirty-three;

And three times twelve are thirty-six. And more they cannot be

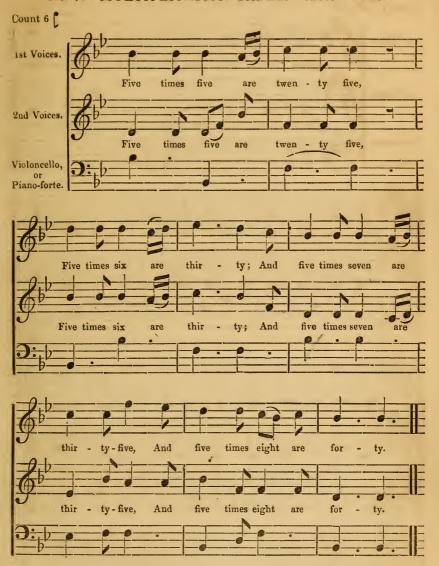
And four times four will make sixteen, If you will count them o'er;

And four times five have always been Just twenty, or a score.

And four times six are twenty-four, Four sevens are twenty-eight; And four times eight are thirty-two. Four nines are thirty-six.

6. Four tens are forty, we repeat, Four elevens are forty-four; And four times twelve are forty-eight, And now our song is o'er.

### No. 7 .- MULTIPLICATION TABLE. SECOND PART.



2

Five times nine are forty-five,
Five times ten are fifty;
And five times eleven are fifty-five,
And five times twelve are sixty.

3.

Six times nine are fifty-four,
Six times ten are sixty;
And seven times nine are sixty-three,
And seven times ten are seventy.

4.

Eight times nine are seventy-two,
Eight times ten are eighty;
And nine times nine are eighty-one,
And nine times ten are ninety.



2

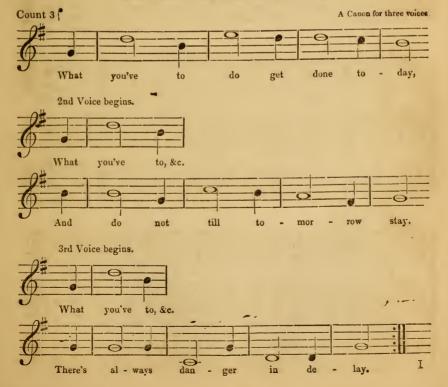
Seventy pence are five and ten pence, Eighty pence are six and eight pence, Ninety pence are seven and six pence, And a hundred, eight and fourpence; Twenty more we'll add, and then, We shall make the shillings ten.

#### THE FOLLOWING SONG MAY BE SUNG TO THE SAME AIR.

#### No. 9.—THE DAYS OF THE MONTHS.

Thirty days are in September, April, June, and dull November; All the rest have one and thirty, Save the month of February, Twenty-eight are all its store, But in leap year, one day more.

### No. 10.—PROCRASTINATION.



# No. 11.—THE PEACE MAKER.





All those who wish for happy days,
This truth should keep in mind,
That friends without some faults are few and rare;
And to those faults the proverb says,
"We should be sometimes blind,"
For we must learn to bear and to forbear.
Come, then, shake hands, be not still offended
Don't disdain to smile again,
For all is past and ended.
Come, let us be good friends again,
We both may have been wrong;
Why should we let our angry passions rise?
Our quarrels only give us pain,
And should not last so long:
In future we will learn to be more wise

## No. 12.—WE ALL LOVE ONE ANOTHER.



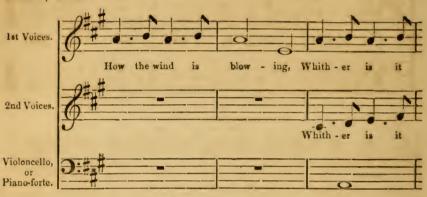
We love our school and teachers,
We love our school and teachers,
We love our school and teachers,
For useful things we learn:
We'll now take leave together,
We'll now clap hands together,
We'll go and play together,
But soon we'll all return.

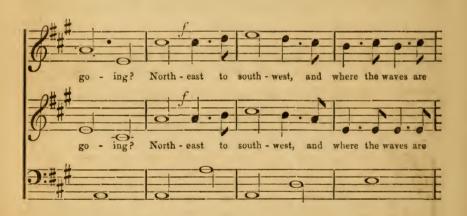
## No. 13.—WE'LL GO TO OUR PLACES.



# No. 14.—HOW THE WIND IS BLOWING.

Count 4 M. 132.









# No. 15.—EARLY TO BED, AND EARLY TO RISE.



If health you would keep, this counsel you'll take, Be early asleep, and early awake.

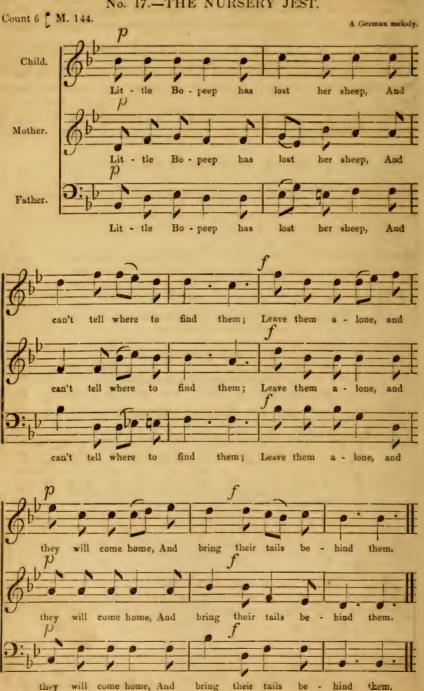
Tis good for your health, 'tis good for your purse, No doctor you'll need, and seldom a nurse.

Then early to bed, and early to rise, That we may be healthy, and wealthy, and wise.





## No. 17.—THE NURSERY JEST.



123

2.

Little Bo-peep fell fast asleep,
And dreamt she heard them bleating;
But when she awoke, she found it a joke,
For still they all were fleeting.

3.

Then up she took her little crook,
And forth she went to find them;
She found them indeed, but it made her heart
bleed,

For they'd left their tails behind them.

N.B.—The song of Little Bo-peep is so great a favourite with children, that to have omitted it in a work partly designed for the parlour and the nursery would have been an unpardonable offence; but as the words are not considered by Schoolmasters of a character sufficiently grave for Infant Schools, the following may be substituted, and sung to the same air.

#### No. 18.—SCHOOL IS BEGUN.

1

School is begun, so come every one,

And come with smiling faces,

For happy are they, who learn when they may,

So come and take your places.

2.

Here you will find your teachers are kind, And with their help succeeding, The older you grow, the more you will know,

And soon you'll love your reading.

3.

Little boys when you grow to be men,
And fill some useful station,
If you should be once found out as a dunce,
Oh, think of your vexation.

4

Little girls, too, a lesson for you,
To learn is now your duty,
Or no one will deem, you worthy esteem,
What e'er your youth or beauty.

School is begun, so come every one,
And come with smiling faces,
For happy are they, who learn when they may,
So come and take your places.

### No. 19.—THE ALPHABET.









Children, why such anger show? Don't you know, don't you know You should not this rule obey? There's a better way. If each should in turn offend, Then would quarrels never end: There's a better way than that, Or than tit for tat.

3.
Though it was indeed unkind,
Never mind, never mind:
You should bear a little pain,
So be friends again.
Those who in this world would live,
Must forget, and must forgive;
Bear these trifles like a man,
That's the better plan.

No. 21.—HOT CROSS BUNS.

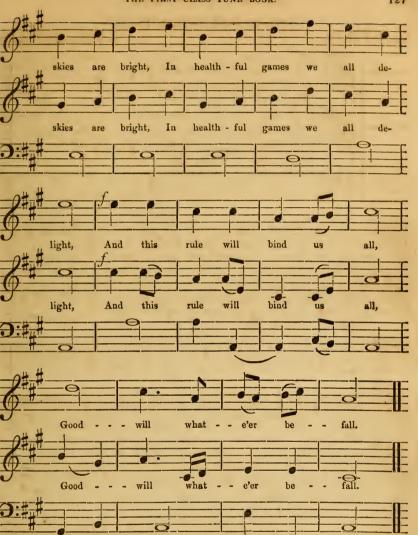


The Infant Schoolmaster may substitute, for the above well-known nursery words, the following, upon suitable occasions:—

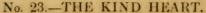
Come, come, come, Come away to school; Leave your play, and come away, And come to school.

## No. 22.—PLAY-HOURS.





Discord shall not here be heard;
No tales have we to tell
Of cold looks, or angry word,
We love our friends too well.
For foolish strife we cannot spare
One moment from our hours of play,
Much too short they always were;
Too swift they fly away.



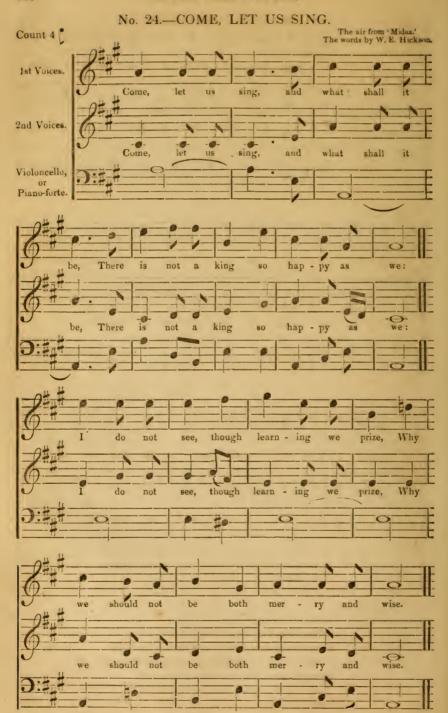


<sup>\*</sup> When two notes are written, as in this instance, the upper one is only to be sung in the event of the voice not being able to reach the lower.



Life is a blessing, which if we enjoy
We ought to render a blessing to all;
Kind thoughts and actions our time should employ,
Heav'n loves all creatures, the great and the small.
Strength is not ours to be used for oppression,
And cruelty never to power should belong;
Even dumb animals claim our protection,

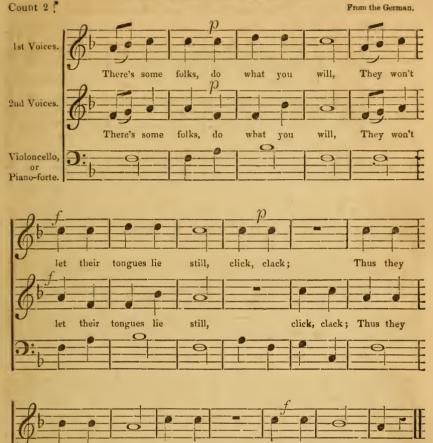
The weak have a right to the aid of the strong.



We'll not be sad without knowing why. Tis not half so bad to laugh as to cry;

With cheerful voice we join in the song, For not to rejoice would surely be wrong.







But, though friends you live among, Do not tire them with your tongue, Click, clack; click, clack: Soon they'll wish you gone, Ding, dong; ding, dong: Take this warning. 3.

When advice you give or take
Think before you silence break,
Once, twice; once, twice:
Think, and then you'll speak
Twice, thrice; twice, thrice;
Thrice the better.

sweet-ly

sang

011

the

No. 26.—THE LINNET. (Arranged for three equal voices, or two trebles and a base.) An Irish Melody, words by W. E. Hicks Count 3 M. 104. why the Lin and net 2nd Voices. So 8i - lent and 3rd Voices. Oh, why is the Lin - net 80 lent and sad, No hap pier bird there could be; The could be; sad. hap pier bird there The No sad, pier could bird there be; glad, nights were gone, and thought it so For cold nights were glad, gone, and thought 80 For we glad, We thought it For sang the tree. The greeu leaves were sweet-ly it the The on green leaves were sang

tree.

The

green leaves were



Our parents we love, for they do a great deal More for us than we e'er can repay; But think of the sorrow those parents would feel, If we were thus stolen away!

4.

I would not be guilty of such a great wrong,
No pris'ners in cages for me;
Fly away, pretty birds, and repeat your sweet song,
I am always the friend of the free.

## No. 27.—THE HARMONIOUS BLACKBIRD.





Feather'd songsters, singing gaily,
Oft among our groves are heard;
Yet, but few that warble daily
Sing more sweetly than this bird.
Pretty blackbird, do not fear me,
Think not I would do thee wrong,
Come, and warble boldly near me,
And repeat your cheerful song.

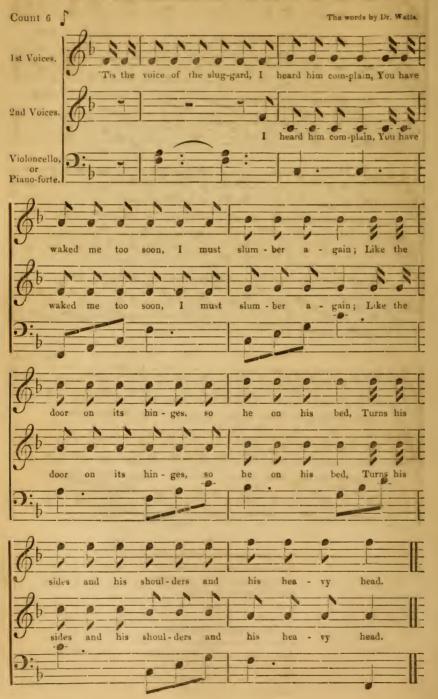
## No. 28.—THE PRAISE OF SPRING.





Each season in the circling year,
Has charms unlike the rest,
But those of spring to me appear,
The fairest and the best.
I love to feel a summer breeze,
In shady bowers at noon;
I love autumnal tints on trees,
I love the harvest moon.
And winter brings us social joys,
Though verdure quits the plain,
Till lovely spring his power destroys,
And smiles on earth again.

## No. 29.—THE SLUGGARD. (A Lesson on the Gamut.)





I passed by his garden, and saw the wild brier, The thorns, and the thistles, grew higher and higher; The clothes that hang on him are turning to rags, And his money still wastes, till he starves or he begs.

4.

Said I to my heart, here's a lesson for me,
That man's but a picture of what I might be;
But that ks to my friends, for their care of my breeding,
Who taught me betimes to love working and reading.

## No. 30.—NEATNESS AND CLEANLINESS.



I'll tell you a rule, so attend that you may hear: At home or in school, always clean and neat appear, Fine clothes you do not want, in the house, nor in the street. But your pride should be this,—to be always clean and neat.



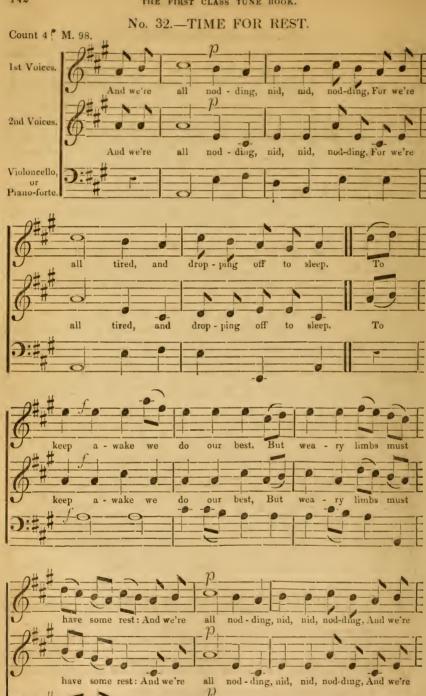
Hands were made to be useful, if you teach them the way,
Therefore, for yourself or neighbour, make them useful every day:—Work away, &c.
3.

And to speed with your labour make the most of to-day, What may hinder you to-morrow it's impossible to say:—Work away, &c.

As for grief and vexation, let them come when they may, When your heart is in your labour, it will soon be light and gay:—Work away, &c. 5.

In the world would you prosper, then this counsel obey, Out of debt is out of danger, and your creditors to pay:—Work away, &c.

Let your own hands support you till your strength shall decay, And your heart should never fail you, even when your hair is gray:—Work away, &c.





breast:

good

night:

good

night.



## THE SECOND CLASS TUNE-BOOK.

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In the selection and adaptation of the following vocal pieces, we have not confined ourselves to the task of giving expression to sentiments, suitable only to a state of childhood. Education should take a prospective aim, and youth is the period when the mind may be impressed with the feelings and principles which should govern the individual when he arrives at an age to take a part in the active business of life. Hence it will be observed, that several of the songs written for this work, have reference to a time when the boy will become a man, and have duties to discharge in reference to his family, his country, and his kind, of which in childhood he could not have a very clear perception. Throughout the whole, our object has been to make music subservient to higher objects than that of merely pleasing the ear, and to promote cheerfulness of mind, kindly feelings, content; a love of industry, honesty, and integrity, and a spirit of self reliance and independence, combined with that of universal brotherhood.

Most of the songs may be sung without the accompanying parts, but the effect will of course be better with them. In a school the bases may be omitted, or may be taken by the teachers: in a family by the father, or elder brother. In some cases where there are three vocal parts, they may all be sung by treble voices, but not invariably.

# SECOND CLASS TUNE BOOK.





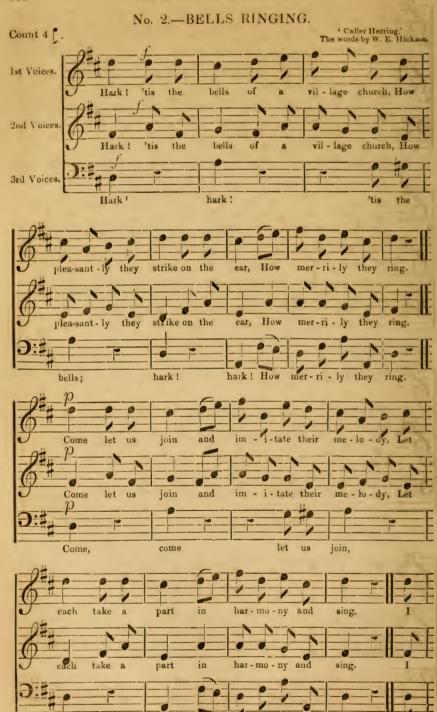
Fair is the face of morn;
Why should your eyelids keep
Closed when the night is gone?
Wake from your sleep!

4

Oh, who would slumber in his bed
When darkness from his couch has fled;
And when the lark ascends on high,
Warbling songs of joy?

5.

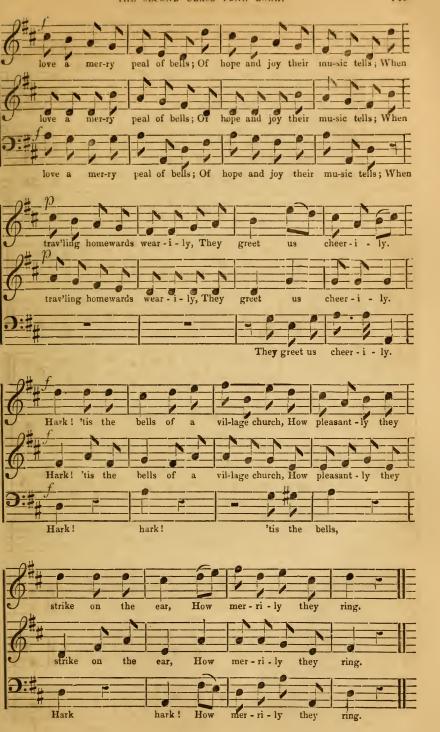
Fair is the face of morn;
Why should your eyelids keep
Closed when the night is gone?
Wake from your sleep!



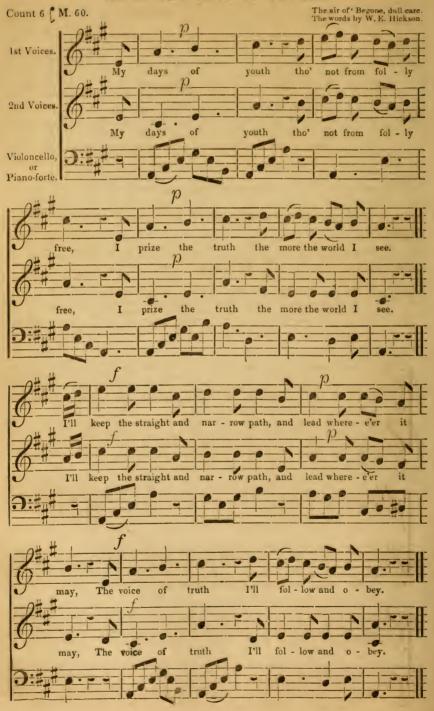
join

come,

har - mo - ny and



### No. 3.—THE LOVE OF TRUTH.



My footsteps lead, O truth, and mould my will, In word and deed my duty to fulfil: Dishonest arts, and selfish aims to truth can ne'er belong, No deed of mine shall be a deed of wrong.

3.

The strength of youth, we see it soon decay, But strong is truth, and stronger every day: Though falsehood seem a mighty power which we in vain assail, The power of truth will in the end prevail.

4.

The friends of youth, Oh! let them always be
The friends of truth, and, therefore, dear to thee:
Let others love duplicity, and on them fortune smile,
But the truth for me, and the heart that's free from guile.

### No. 4.—FOR AGE AND WANT.



## No. 5.—IN THE COTTAGE.







Blest with life, and blest with health, We desire no splendid home; Nor, to be the slaves of wealth, Do we ever wish to roam.

4.

All its sweets would quickly pall—
Honest hearts and liberty
In our own cot are worth them all—
Home is home where'er it be-





And now, secure of winning,
Another youth is seen,
His turn is just beginning,
The best bat on the green.
The wicket, from our bowler,
Is long with skill defended,
But run, boys, run, start every one
To catch the ball before it fall:
He's out, the game is ended,
And we the game have won.
But run, boys, run, &c.



3.—Time steals on, and you remain, Still far, far away;

But we hope to meet again, Though far, far away.

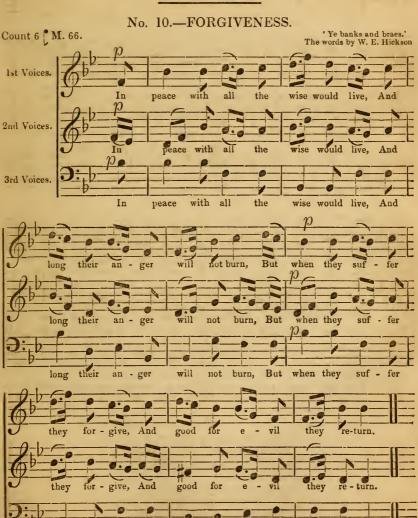
4.—Yes, we hope again to meet,
And then our joy will be complete;
For now, dear friends, the thought is sweet,
Though far, far away.



## No. 9.—COME, LET US MARCH AND SING.







for

vil

they

re - turn.

good

for - give, And







It is not pride, it is not strife,

Nor bitter thoughts, nor angry deeds,

That gild with joy the days of life.

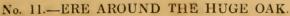
Resentment still to sorrow leads.

Then love shall triumph, love alone

Within our hearts shall live and reign;

Our foes subdued, its power shall own,

And once loved triends, be friends again.



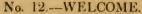


2.
I can trace back the time to a far distant date,
When my forefathers toil'd in yon field,
And the farm I now hold on your honour's estate,
Is the same that my grandfather till'd.

3.

He died, and bequeath'd to his son a good name,
Which unblemish'd descended to me,
And I will preserve it, unsulfied by shame,
That it still from a spot may go free.

M









The words from Burns, anglicised.

We will not blush for po - ver - ty, Nor hang our heads and

Violoncello, or Piano-forte.

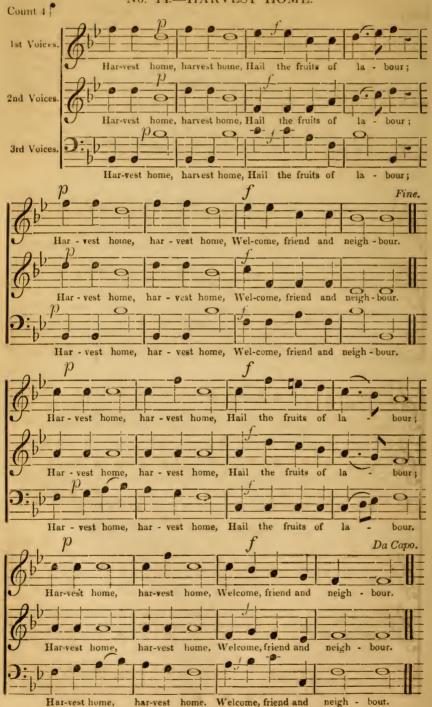


The king may make a knight, or lord,
A marquis, duke, and all that;
But honesty needs no reward,
And kings can never buy that.
For all that, and all that;
The pride of birth and all that;
Good sense and worth o'er all the earth,
Are nobler things than all that.

3.

And let us pray, that come it may,
As come it will for all that;
When with the right, shall be the might,
And truth shall reign, and all that.
For all that, and all that,
'Tis coming still for all that;
When man with man the wide world o'er
Shall brothers be, and all that.

#### No. 14.—HARVEST HOME.



## No. 15.—MARCH, AND LIFT UP YOUR VOICES.







They for-sake their lea - fy dwell-ing, To se-cure the gold-en grain.

### No. 17.—THE MIGHT WITH THE RIGHT.





cease, And truth and love all hearts shall move, To live in joy and peace.

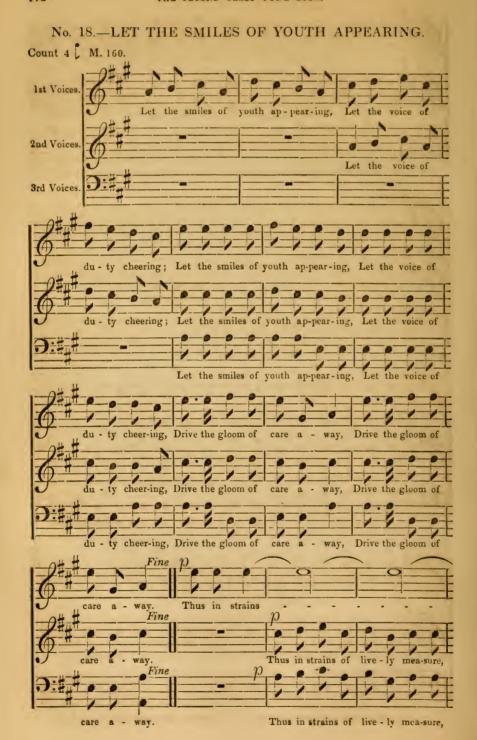




Let good men ne'er of truth despair,
Though humble efforts fail;
Oh give not o'er, until once more
The righteous cause prevail.
In vain, and long, enduring wrong,
The weak may strive against the strong;
But the day shall yet appear,
When the might with the right, &c.

3.

Though interest pleads, that noble deeds
The world will not regard;
To noble minds, that duty binds,
No sacrifice is hard.
The brave and true may seem but few,
But hope has better things in view;
And the day will yet appear,
When the might with the right, &c.







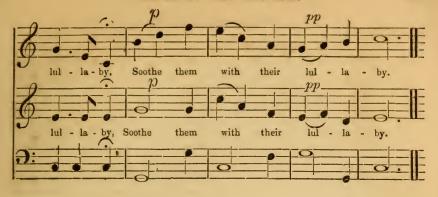
# No. 19.—IDLENESS AND KNAVE



No. 20.-LULLABY.







Is the wind tempestuous blowing?
Still no danger they descry;
The guileless heart its boon bestowing,
Soothes them with its lullaby.
Lullaby, lullaby, lullaby, lullaby,
Soothes them with its lullaby.

# No. 21.—THE HOUR IS COME OF TWILIGHT GRAY.







Oh! pity the poor sailor, And all who cross the seas; What fears are their's, What toils and cares, While here we sit at ease. May they in safety reach their port. Nor wreck nor danger know; And on shore, Fear no more, When the stormy winds do blow.





Though other climes may brighter hopes fulfil,

"England, with all thy faults I love thee still."

Heav'n shield Britannia from each hostile band,
And peace and plenty crown our native land.

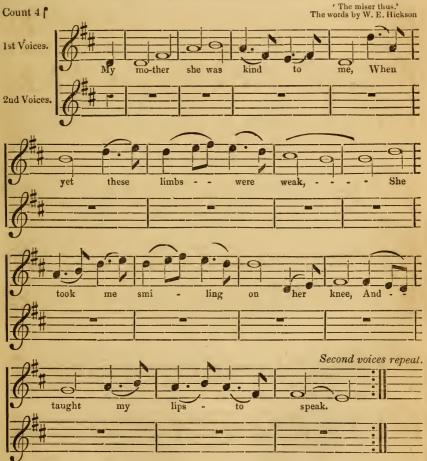
Thus then uniting, hearts and voices joining,
Sing we in harmony our native land.

<sup>&</sup>quot; The sons of Erin may substitute "Treland" for "England, or the Scotch, "Scotland."





#### No. 25.—FILIAL AFFECTION.

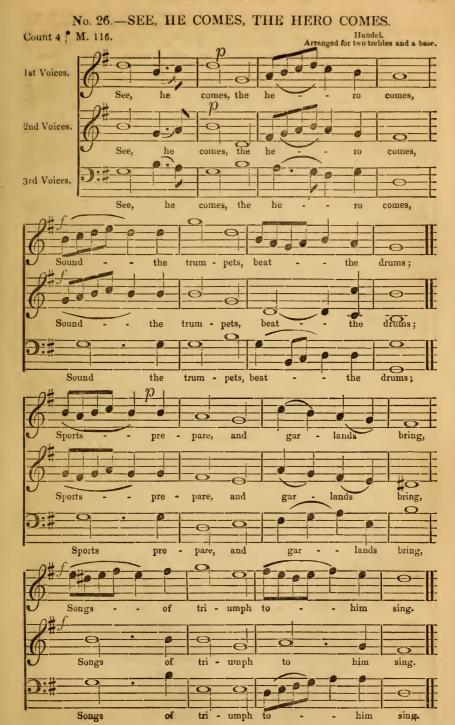


The above having been sung by the first voices, alone, the second voices repeat the air, singing it also alone, to the following words:—

My father he was kind to me, When yet these limbs were weak; He took me, smiling, on his knee, And taught my lips to speak.

First and second voices then join in the following chorus:-

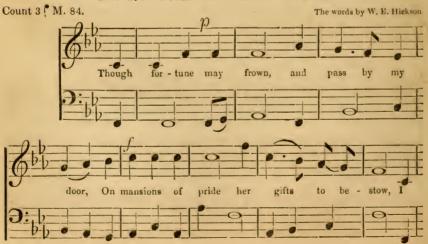






He was tried and faithful found, And with laurel shall be crown'd, Since he duty's call obeys, He deserves our honest praise. See, he comes, the hero comes, Sound the trumpets, beat the drums.

### No. 27.—THE PEASANT'S SONG.





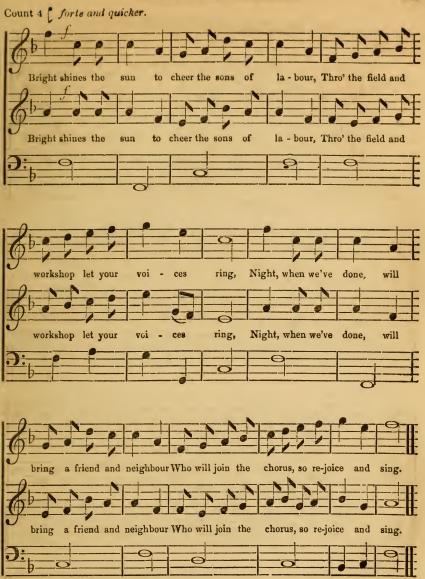
Though sickness or sorrow may sometimes o'ertake me, With wealth, and with power, those ills would befal; Though Heaven may afflict, it will not forsake me, The rich and the poor, one God made them all.

4.

Though rank and distinction by thousands are sought,
The highest is that which few care to find,
But mine, be it ever to act as I ought,
And leave, when I die, a good name behind.

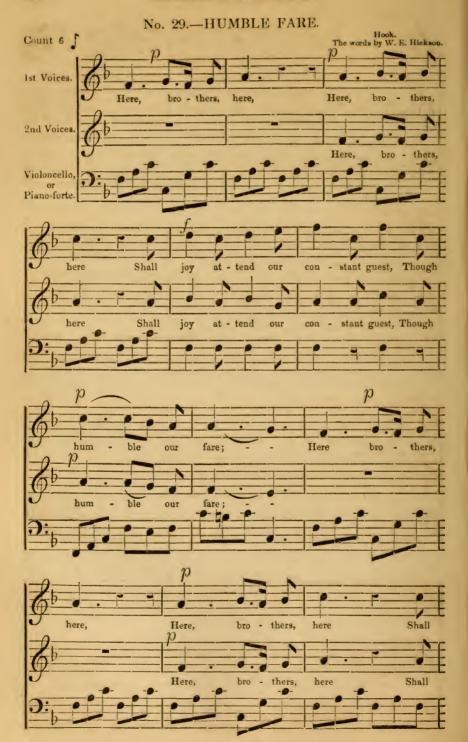
#### No. 28.—THE LABOURERS' SONG.



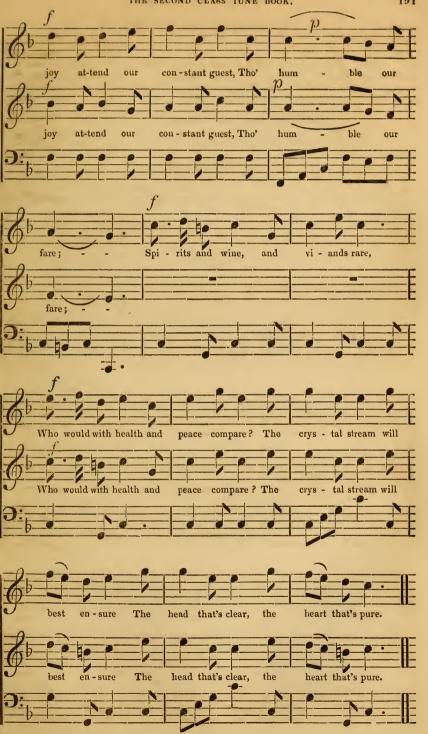


With food by our own hands supplied We'll be content, whate'er's denied; The world could not improve the store Of him who feels he wants no more. Among the rich, among the great, For all their wealth, and all their state, There's many a heart not half so free From care, as humble honesty.

Bright shines the sun, &c. &c.

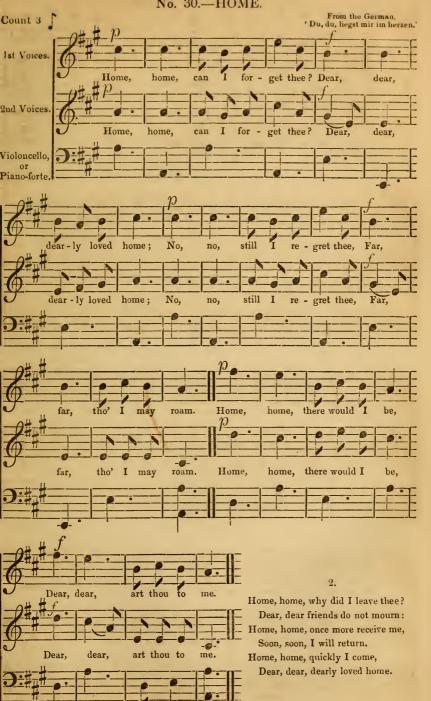




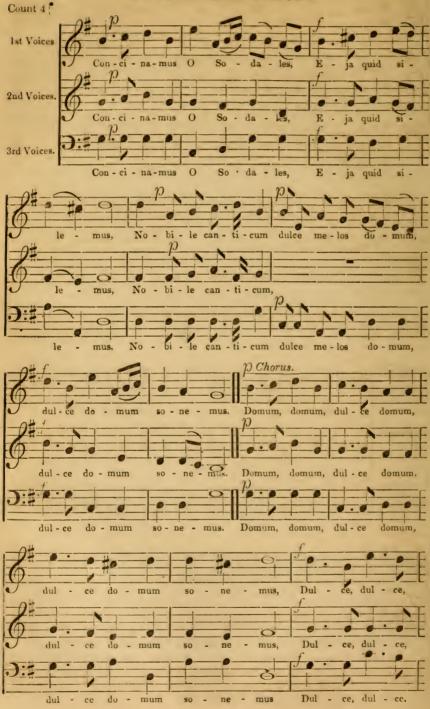








#### No. 31.—DULCE DOMUM.





Appropinquat ecce! Felix Hora gaudiorum: Post grave tœdium Advenit omnium Meta petita laborum. Chorus, Domum, domum, &c.

Count 4 M. 108.

Concinamus ad Penates Vox et audiatur Phosphore! quid jubar Segnuis emicans Gaudia nostra moratur. Chorus, Domum, domum, &c.

The air of 'Auld lang syne.' The words by W. E. Hickson

## No. 32.—OLD FRIENDS SHALL NEVER BE FORGOT.

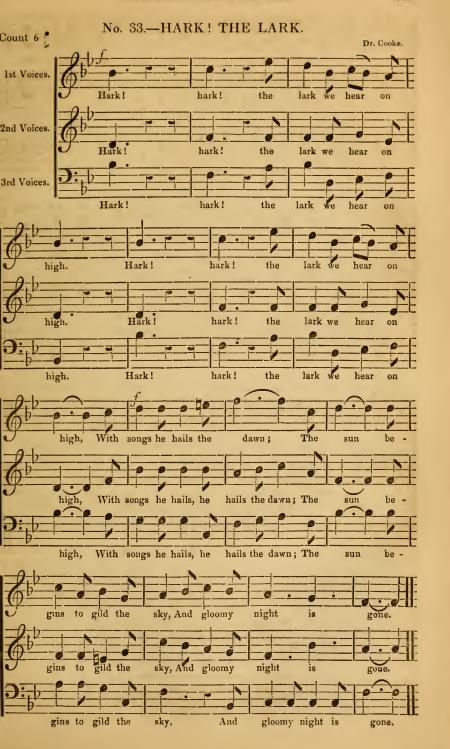




It shall not yet be said with truth,
That now our hearts are cold;
The friends who loved us in our youth.
We'll love when they are old.

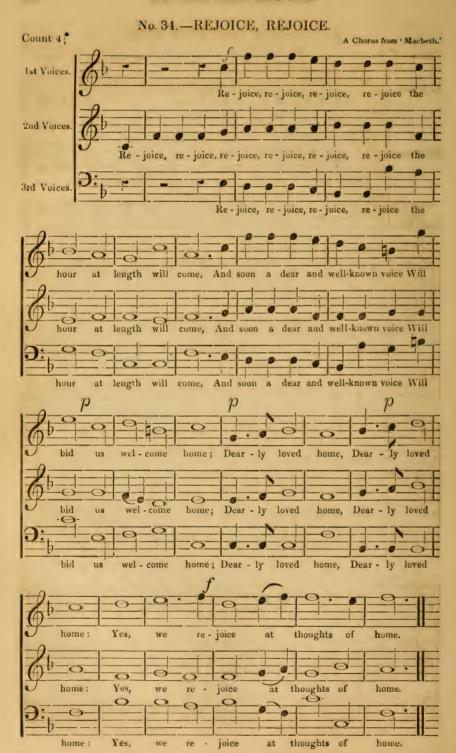
4.

And if in ills which we withstand,
They kind assistance need,
We'll stretch them forth a helping hand,
And be a friend indeed.

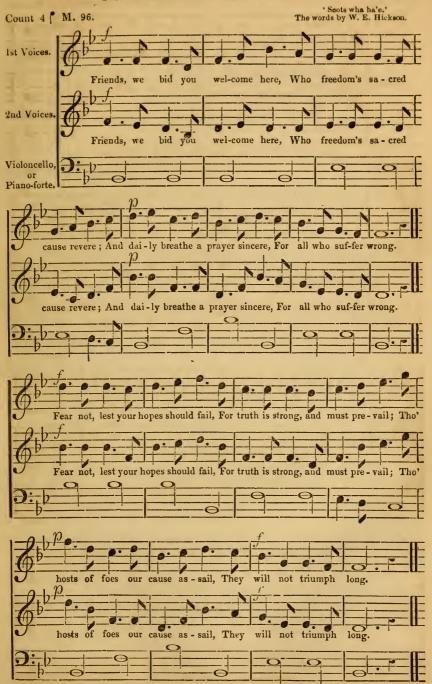








# No. 35.—THE PATRIOT'S SONG.



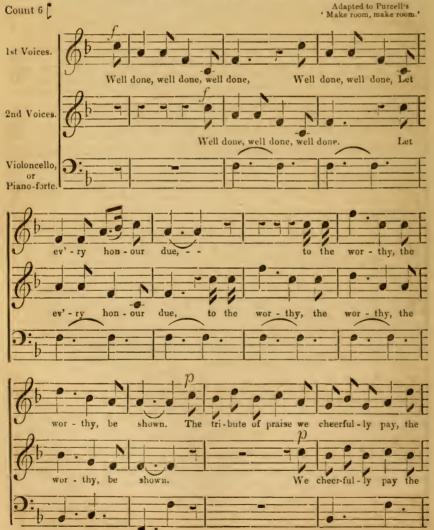
2

Who is he devoid of shame,
Who justice for himself would claim?
And yet deny to all the same,
Through vain and selfish pride.
Friends, our hearts you long have known,
You are not left to fight alone;
The good man's cause we'll make our own,
For Heav'n is on our side.

3

Who would live, to live in vain,
Like those who seek alone for gain?
Or spend their days with care and pain,
For some ignoble end.
We would hope to leave behind
A better world than here we find;
A world the better for mankind,
That we have lived their friend.

No. 36.—WELL DONE, WELL DONE.

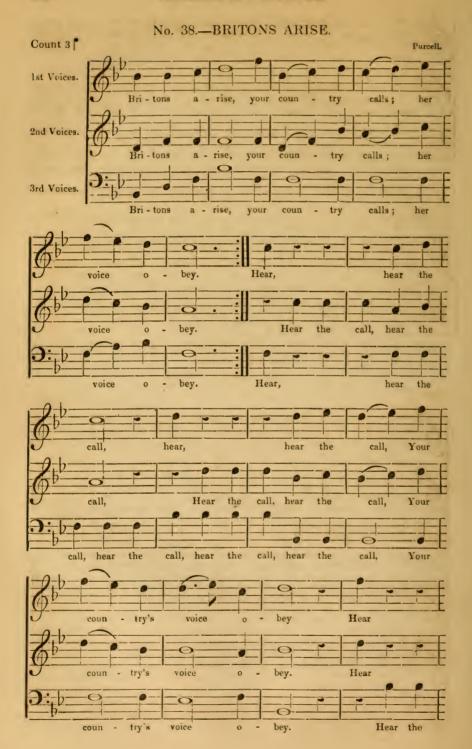




## No. 37.—IF YOU GET INTO DEBT.











you.

gain.

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not

not

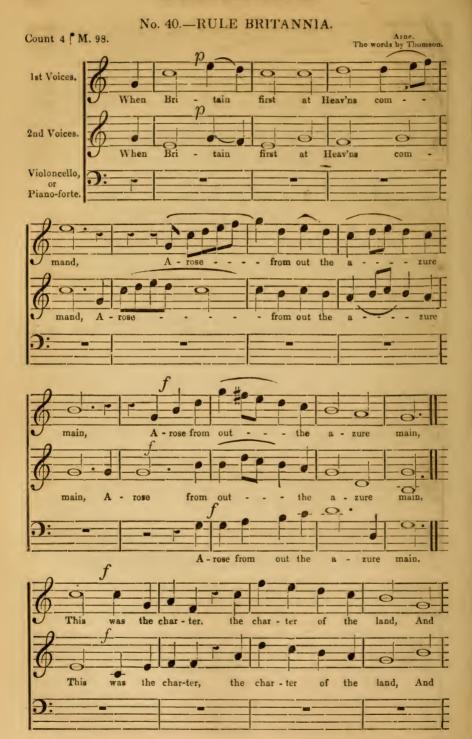
take

take

would

would

\* When canons are written in this manner, it is intended that the first voice should sing to the end of the first part, and then sing the second part, after which the third part, and then the first part over again; so with the other voices: each voice alternately sings the other's part. The second voice begins when the first has got to the end of the first part.





2.
The world a bright example give,
'And teach the nations how to live:'—
Justice,—the spirit of thy laws,
And freedom,—Britain's sacred cause.
Rule, Britannia, &c.

3.
Thy ships shall whiten every sea,
Diffusing knowledge, liberty;—
And while thy commerce they maintain,
Let tyrants tremble at the strain.\*
Rule, Britannia, &c.

The second and third verses have been added by W. E. Hickson.

Count 3 M. 66.

#### No. 41.—THE NATIONAL ANTHEM.

(The air should be sung first, by the first voices, alone, then repeat, forte, with all the parts.)





Through ev'ry changing scene. Oh Lord, preserve the Queen!

Long may she reign! Her heart inspire, and move With wisdom from above; And in a nation's love

Her throne maintain !

May just and righteous laws Uphold the public cause, And bless our Isle!

Home of the brave and free,-The land of liberty,-We pray that still on thee

Kind Heav'n may smile !

4.

The words by W. E. Hickson.

And not this land alone, But be thy mercies known

From shore to shore! Lord, make the nations see That men should brothers be, And form one family

The wide world o'er!

The *original words* are subjoined for the convenience of those who, from old associations, prefer singing no other to the above air; it will be observed, however, that the spirit of the second verse is at variance with the kindly feelings which should be cultivated in a childrens' school.

1.

God save our gracious Queen;
Long live our gracious Queen;
God save the Queen!
Send her victorious;
Happy and glorious;
Long to reign over us,
God save the Queen!

O Lord our God arise, Scatter her enemies, And make them fall. Confound their politics; Frustrate their knavish tricks;

Frustrate their knavish tricks;
On thee our hopes we fix;
God save us all!

3

Thy choicest gifts in store,
On her be pleased to pour,
Long may she reign!
May she defend our laws,
And ever give us cause
To sing, with heart and voice,
God save the Queen!

### No. 42.—NOW LET NOTES OF JOY ASCENDING.



## No. 43.—FAREWELL.





2.

Farewell! and when thoughts depressing
Rise for you within my breast,
May my prayers bring down a blessing,
Which on you and your's may rest.
May another happy meeting
All those doubts and fears dispel;
Joyful, then, will be our greeting,
And, 'till then, dear friends, farewell!



## THE HYMN TUNE BOOK.

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THE following collection of hymn tunes, adapted for public and social worship, has been prepared chiefly with a view to schools, especially Sunday-schools.

The object is to promote the practice of part-singing, by which the effect of psalmody is always greatly improved; and the necessity of a collection arranged upon the plan of this work arises from the fact that in the books commonly used the airs are arranged without a second treble part for children, but with alto and tenor parts (written for men's voices), which, in schools, can very seldom be adequately sustained.

It is very desirable that every one should be enabled to join in sacred harmony, each taking the part best adapted for his voice; but to attain this end it is necessary that the practice of singing in parts should commence at school, for a youth who has not first acquired the ability to sing a second treble part will very rarely, at a subsequent period when his voice has changed, learn to sing a part written for a tenor, alto, or base.

All the airs, therefore, in the present work, are arranged with this object in view, either for two trebles and a base, or for three equal voices.

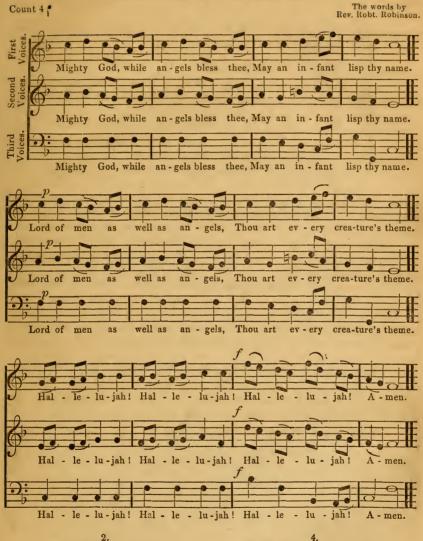
The Sunday School Teacher, it is presumed, will form a class of the elder pupils, to meet on some evening in the week for the purpose of learning the notation of music, upon the plan, or in the manner described in No. I of "The Singing Master, or First Lessons in Singing." When his pupils are familiar with the notes he will divide them into two classes,—one to sing the air,—the other to sing the part written for "second voices," taking care to keep both classes some distance apart, that they may not confuse each other.

Each part, until the pupils have had some considerable practice in reading music, must be taught at first separately,—the air by itself, and the second by itself, before both are sung together. The female teachers should lead, dividing themselves between the first and second voices. Some of the young men among the teachers may perhaps be able to sing with the seconds in a falsetto voice, the rest should sing the base, and boys of fourteen whose voices are about to break may sing the base with them in the octave above. When there is sufficient strength in the upper parts with treble voices, the air should not be sung by men's voices, as they would only injure the effect.

The pupils should never be taught entirely by ear, but always with the notes before them. The tune should either be written on a black board with chalk, the teacher pointing to each note when it is sung, or copies should be placed in their hands. By means of the best writers in a school, copies can always be multiplied ad libitum,—but without having either the written or printed music constantly before them, children will never acquire a thorough knowledge of intervals, or have an association established in their minds between musical sounds and the signs by which those sounds are represented on paper.

In a school in which the children have had no previous practice in singing, the teacher should begin with the airs which have rather a quick movement, leaving some of the fine solemn airs better suited to such an instrument as the organ until the voices of the children have acquired sufficient strength and fulness for sustaining long notes.

#### No. 1.—SICILIAN MARINERS.



Q

Lord of every land and nation,
Ancient of eternal days!
Sounded thro' the wide creation
Be thy just and lawful praise.
Hallelujah!

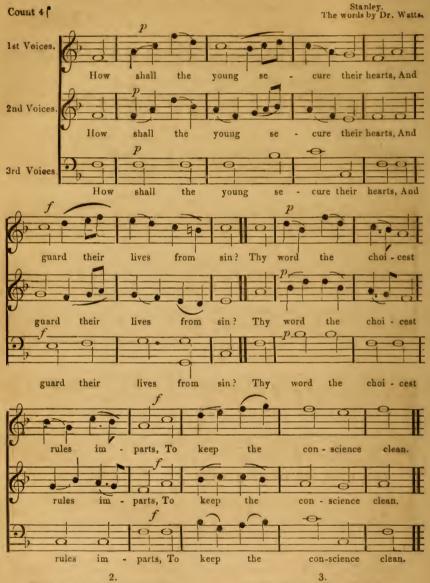
3.

For the grandeur of thy nature,
Grand beyond a seraph's thought;
For created works of power,
Works with skill and kindness wrought,
Hallelujah!

For thy providence that governs
Thro' thine empire's wide domain;
Wings an angel, guides a sparrow
Blessed be thy holy name.
Hallelujah!

By thy rich, thy free redemption,
Dark thro' brightness all along,
Thought is poor, and poor expression;
Who dare sing that awful song?
Hallelujah!

### No. 2.—WARWICK.—c. M.

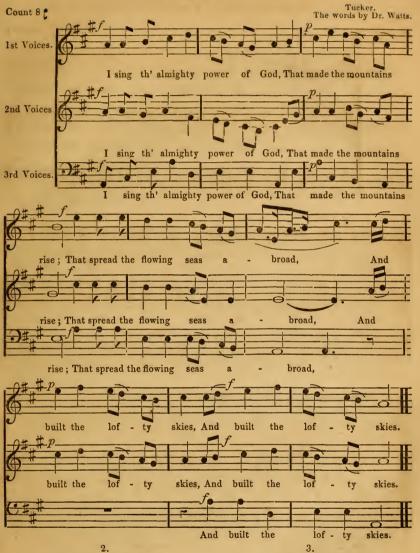


When once it enters to the mind,
It spreads such light abroad,
The meanest souls instruction find,
And raise their thoughts to God.

'Tis like the sun, a heavenly light,
That guides us all the day;
And, through the dangers of the night,
A lamp to lead the way.

Thy word is everlasting truth;
How pure is every page!
That holy book shall guide our youth,
And well support our age.

### No. 3.—DEVIZES.—c. M.



I sing the wisdom that ordain'd
The sun to rule the day;
The moon shines full at his command,
And all the stars obey.

I sing the goodness of the Lord,
That fill'd the earth with food;
He form'd the creatures with his word,
And then pronounc'd them good.

His hand is my perpetual guard;
He keeps me with his eye;
Why should I then forget the Lord,
Who is for ever nigh?

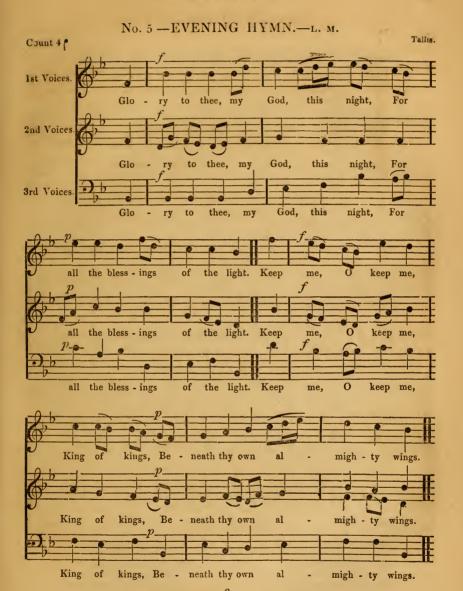
# No. 4.-STONEFIELD, OR DOVERSDALE.-L. M.



2.
Redeem thy mis-spent moments past,
And live this day as if the last:
Thy talents to improve take care;
For the great day thyself prepare.

3.

Let all thy converse be sincere,
Thy conscience as the noon-day clear;
For God's all-seeing eye surveys
hy secret thoughts, thy works, and ways.



Forgive me, Lord, for thy dear Son, The ill that I this day have done; That with the world, myself, and thee, I, ere I sleep, at peace may be.

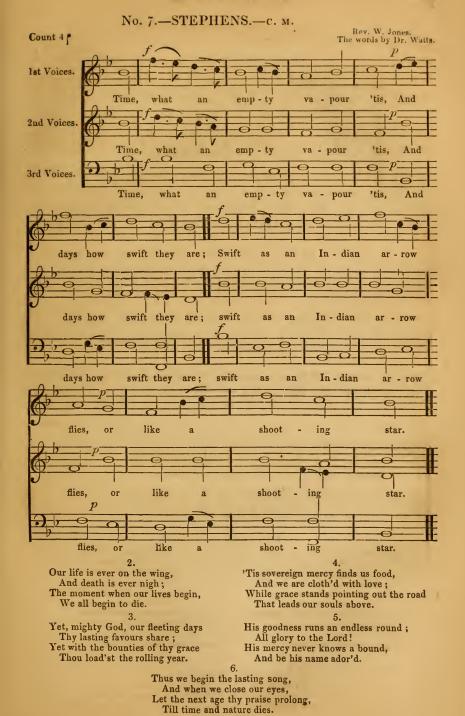
Teach me to live, that I may dread The grave as little as my bed; Teach me to die, that so I may Rise glorious at the judgment-day



Yet here by his works
Their author is known.
The world shines a mirror
Its Maker to show,
And heav'n shines with wonders
Reflected below.
3.
Those agents of power,
Fire, water, earth, sky.

Fire, water, earth, sky,
Attest the dread might
Of God, the Most High;
Who rides on the whirlwind,
While clouds veil his form;
Who smiles in the sunbeam,
Or frowns in the storm.

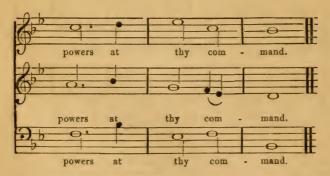
By knowledge supreme,
By wisdom divine,
God governs the earth
With gracious design;
O'er beast, bird, and insect
His Providence reigns,
Whose will first created,
Whose love still sustains.
5.
And man, his last work,
With reason subdu'd,
Who, falling through sin,
By grace is renew'd;
To God, his Creator,
Let man ever raise
The song of thanksgiving,
The chorus of praise.



### No. S.-GERMAN HYMN.-7's.



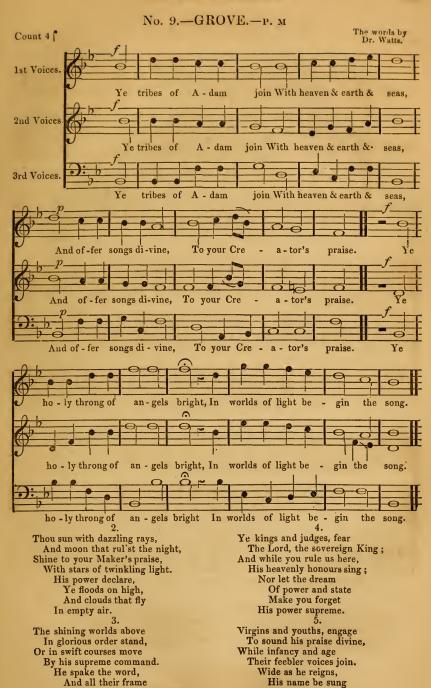




Times of sickness, times of health;
Times of poverty and wealth;
Times of trial and of grief;
Times of triumph and relief.

Times the tempter's pow'r to prove;
Times to taste a Saviour's love;
All with thee begin and end,
Father, and Almighty friend!

O thou gracious, wise, and just, In thy hands my life I trust; Thou, O Lord, art God alone; I and mine are all my own.

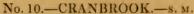


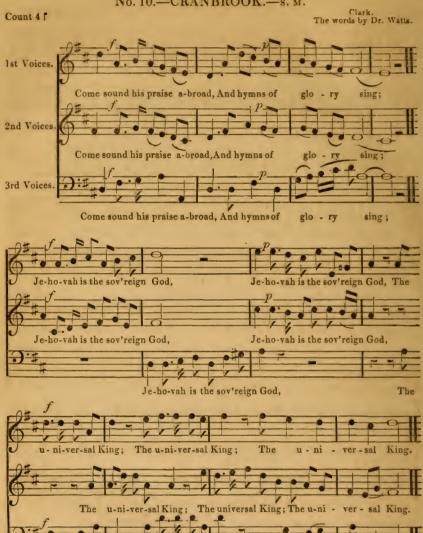
By every tongue

In endless strains.

From nothing came,

To praise the Lord.





He form'd the deeps unknown,
He gave the seas their bound;
The watery worlds are all his own,
And all the solid ground.

u - ni-ver-sal King; The u-ni-ver-sal King;

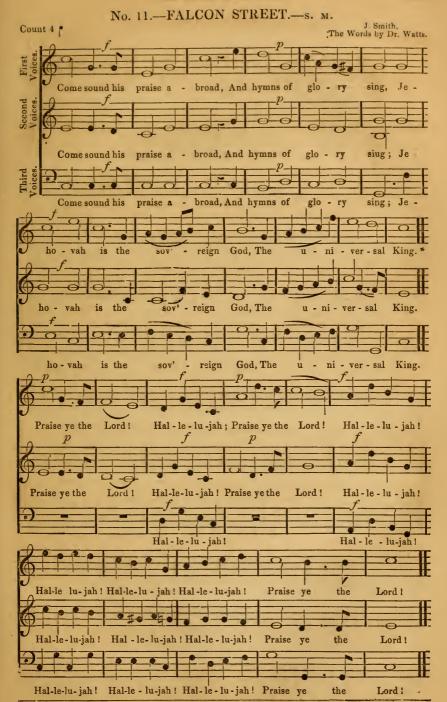
3.
Come worship at his throne,
Come bow before the Lord;
We are his works, and not our own,
He form'd us by his word.

ni

- ver - sal King.

The

To-day attend his voice,
Nor dare provoke his rod;
Come, like the people of his choice,
And own your gracious God.



<sup>\*</sup> For the remaining verses of this hymn see page 226.



Art thou my Father? Canst thou bear To hear my poor imperfect prayer? Or wilt thou listen to the praise That such a little one can raise?

Art thou my Father? Let me be
A meek, obedient child to thee;
And try, in word, and deed, and thought,
To serve and please thee as I ought.

Art thou my Father? I'll depend Upon the care of such a friend; And only wish to do and be Whatever seemeth good to thee.

Art thou my Father? Then at last, When all my days on earth are past, Send down and take me, in thy love, To be thy better child above.

#### No. 13.—STAUGHTON.—c. M.





He sends his showers of blessing down,
To clear the plains below;
He makes the grass the mountains crown,
And corn in valleys grow.

His steady counsels change the face Of the declining year, He bids the sun cut short his race, And wintry days appear.

His hoary frost, his fleecy snow,
Descend and clothe the ground;
The liquid streams forbear to flow,
In icy fetters bound.

He sends his word, and melts the snow;
The fields no longer mourn;
He calls the warmer gales to blow,
And bids the spring return.

The changing wind, the flying cloud,
Obey his mighty word.
With songs and honours, sounding loud,
Praise ye the sov'reign Lord.

#### No. 14.—DERITEND.—c. M.



Deep in unfathomable mines
Of never-failing skill,
He treasures up his bright designs,
And works his sovereign will.

Ye fearful saints, fresh courage take;
The clouds ye so much dread
Are big with mercies, and shall break
In blessings on your head.

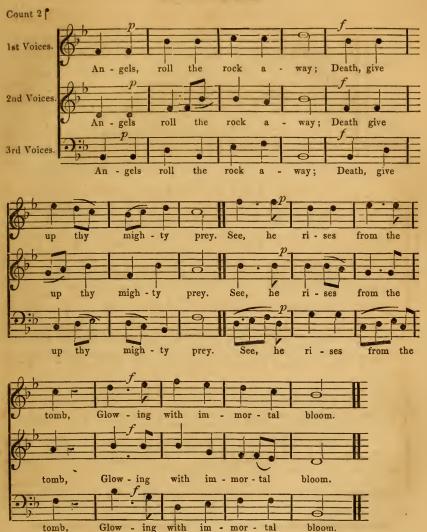
Judge not the Lord by feeble sense,
But trust him for his grace;
Behind a frowning providence
He hides a smiling face.

His purposes will ripen fast, Unfolding every hour; The bud may have a bitter taste, But sweet will be the flower.

Blind unbelief is sure to err, And scan his work in vain; God is his own interpreter, And he will make it plain.

6.

#### No. 15.—HARTS.



2.

Glow - ing

with

tomb,

'Tis the Saviour: angels, raise Your eternal hymn of praise; Let the earth's remotest bound Hear the joy-inspiring sound.

bloom. 3.

Heav'n, display your portals wide, Glorious hero, thro' them ride; King of Glory, mount the throne, Thy great Father's, and thine own.

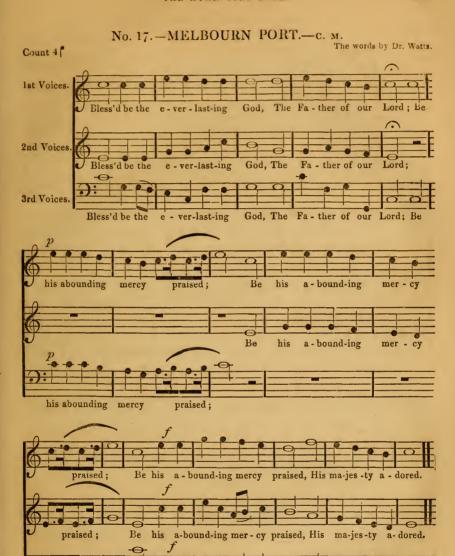
Shout, O Earth! in rapturous song, Let the strains be sweet and strong: Praise him, all ye heavenly choirs; Praise, and sweep your golden lyres.



He fills the sun with morning light, He bids the moon direct the night; His mercies ever shall endure, When suns and moons shall be no more.

3.

Thro' this vain world he guides our feet, And leads us to his heavenly seat; His mercies ever shall endure, When this vain world shall be no more.



a-bounding

When from the dead he raised his Son,
And call'd him to the sky;
He gave our souls a lively hope,
That they should never die.

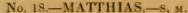
3.
What though our inbred sins require
Our flesh to see the dust;
Yet as the Lord our Saviour rose,
So all his followers must.

There 's an inheritance divine, Reserv'd against that day; 'Tis uncorrupted, undefiled, And cannot fade away.

mercy praised, His ma - jes - ty

a - dored.

Saints by the power of God are kept
Till the salvation come;
We walk by faith as strangers here
Till Christ shall call us home,





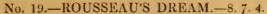
2.
The darkness and the light
Still keep their course the same;
While night to day, and day to night,
Divinely teach his name.

In every different land
Their general voice is known,
They show the wonders of his hand,
And orders of his throne.

Ye British lands, rejoice:
Here he reveals his word;
We are not left to nature's voice
To bid us know the Lord.

His statutes and commands
Are set before our eyes;
He puts his gospel in our hands
Where our salvation lies.

His laws are just and pure, His truth without deceit; His promises for ever sure, And his rewards are great.





Open thou the crystal fountain
Whence the healing streams do flow;
Let the fiery, cloudy pillar
Lead me all my journey through.
Strong deliverer!
Be thou still my strength and shield.

When I tread the verge of Jordan
Bid my anxious fears subside;
Death of deaths, and hell's destruction,
Land me safe on Canaan's side.
Songs of praises
I will ever give to thee.

<sup>\*</sup> The four last bars, here, should be sung by a tenor voice, the second treble voices singing as in the first part of the tune.

#### No. 20.—IRISH.—c. M.



Life, death, and hell, and worlds unknown Hang on his firm decree;

He sits on no precarious throne, Nor borrows leave to be.

3

Chain'd to his throne a volume lies,
With all the forms of men,
With every angel's form and size
Drawn by the eternal pen.

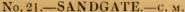
4.

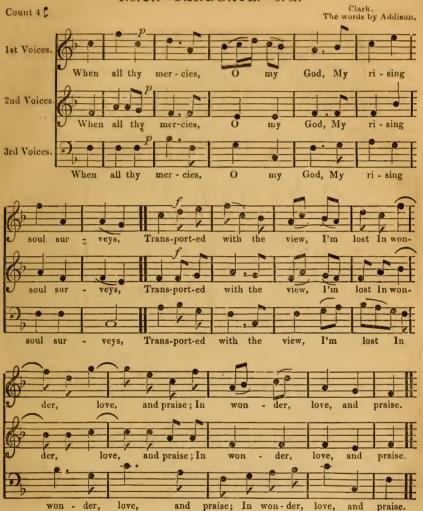
His providence unfolds the book, And makes his counsels shine; Each opening leaf, and every stroke, Fulfil some deep design.

5

My God, I would not long to see
My fate with curious eyes;
What gloomy lines are writ for me,
And what bright scenes may rise.

6.
In thy fair book of life and grace,
O may I find my name
Recorded in some humble place
Bencath my Lord, the Lamb.





To all my weak complaints and cries
Thy mercy lent an ear,
Ere yet my feeble thoughts had learnt
To form themselves in prayer.

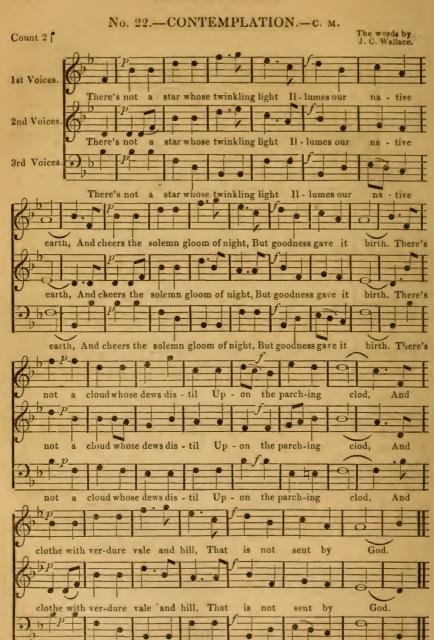
3.

When worn with sickness, oft hast thou
With health renew'd my face,
And when in sins and sorrow sunk,
Reviv'd my soul with grace.

Ten thousand thousand precious gifts
My daily thanks employ;
Nor is the least a cheerful heart
That tastes those gifts with joy.
5.
Through every period of my life

Thy goodness I'll pursue,
And, after death, in distant worlds
The glorious theme renew.

Through all eternity to thee
A joyful song I'll raise;
For oh! eternity's too short
To utter all thy praise.



There's not a place, search earth around, Or ocean deep, or air,

. clothe with ver-dure vale and hill, That

Where skill and goodness are not found, For God is every where. Almighty God, thy gracious power On every hand we see;

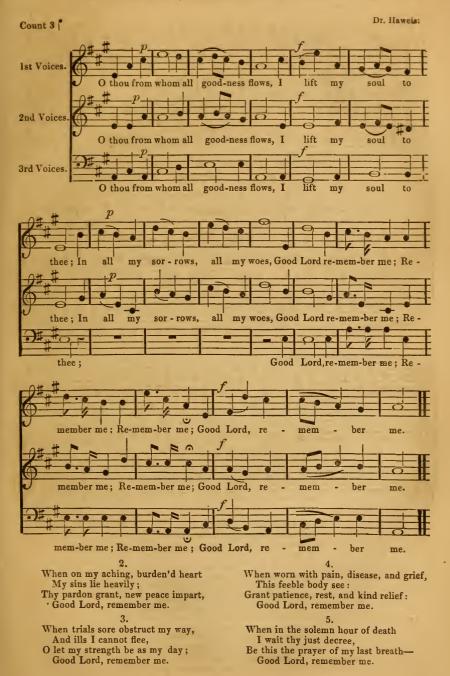
sent by

is not

God.

And may the blessings of each hour Direct our thoughts to thee.

# No. 23.—HAWEIS, OR MOUNT CALVARY.—C. M.



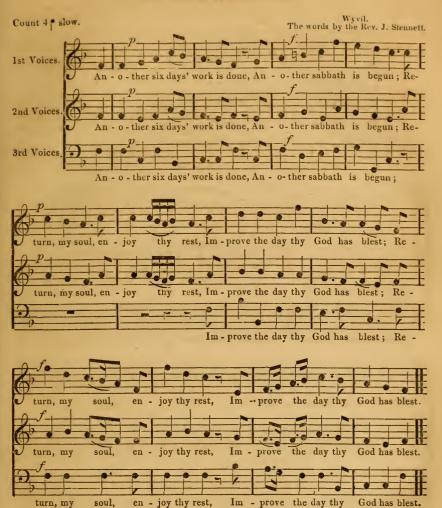


2.
Knowledge, alas! 'tis all in vain,
And all in vain our fear;
Our stubborn sins will fight and reign
If love be absent there.

This is the grace that lives and sings When faith and hope shall cease; 'Tis this shall strike our joyful strings In the sweet realms of peace.

Before we quite forsake our clay, Or leave this dark abode, The wings of love bear us away To see our smiling God.

#### No. 25.-EATON.-L. M.

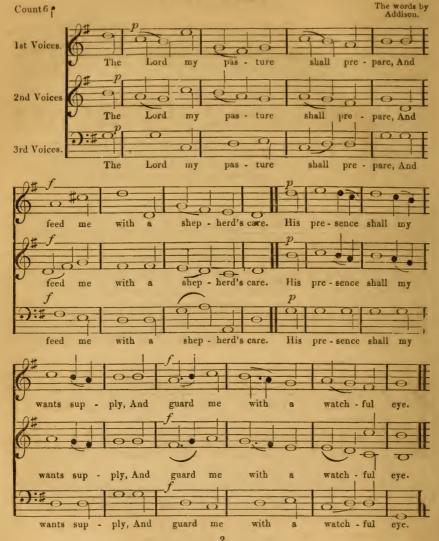


O that our thoughts and thanks may rise As grateful incense to the skies; And draw from heaven that sweet repose Which none, but he that feels it, knows.

This heavenly calm within the breast Is the dear pledge of glorious rest, Which to the child of God remains The end of cares, the end of pains.

With joy, great God, thy works we view, In various scenes, both old and new; With praise we think on mercies past, With joy we future pleasures taste.





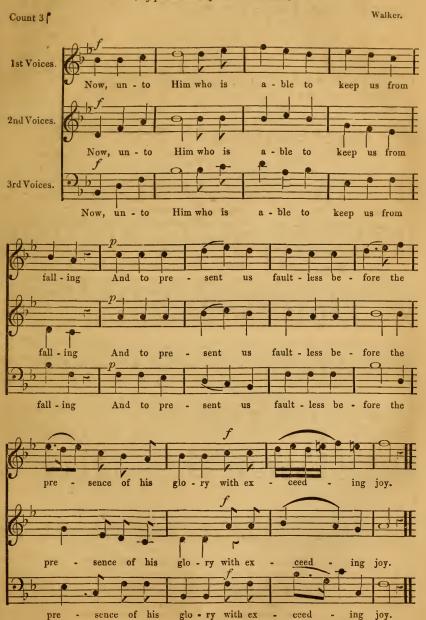
When in the sultry glebe I faint, Or on the thirsty mountain pant, To fertile vales and dewy meads My weary wandering steps he leads; Where peaceful rivers, soft and slow, Amid the verdant landscape flow.

Though in a bare and rugged way,
Through devious, lonely paths I stray,
Thy bounty shall my pains beguile,
The barren wilderness shall smile,
With sudden greens and herbage crown'd,
...d streams shall murmur all around.

Though in the paths of death I tread, With gloomy horrors overspread, My stedfast heart shall fear no ill, For thou, O Lord, art with me still; Thy friendly crook shall give me aid, And guide me through the dreadful

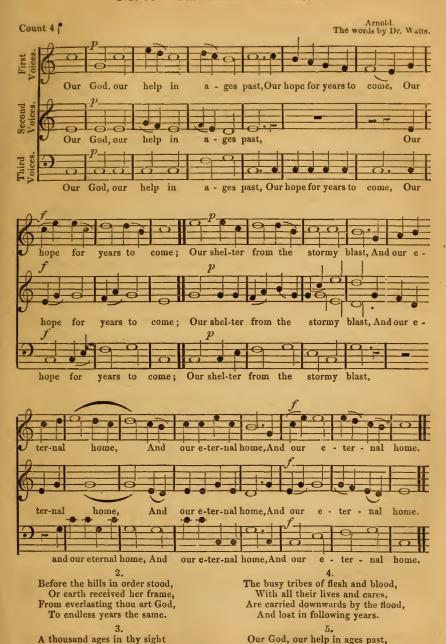
# No. 27.—ADORATION.

(By permission of Mr. J. Walker.)





## No. 28.—GABRIEL NEW.—c. M.



Are like an evening gone! Short as the watch that ends the night

Before the rising sun.

Our hope for years to come, Be thou our guard while troubles last,

And our eternal home.

## No. 29.—PROSPECT.—c. M.

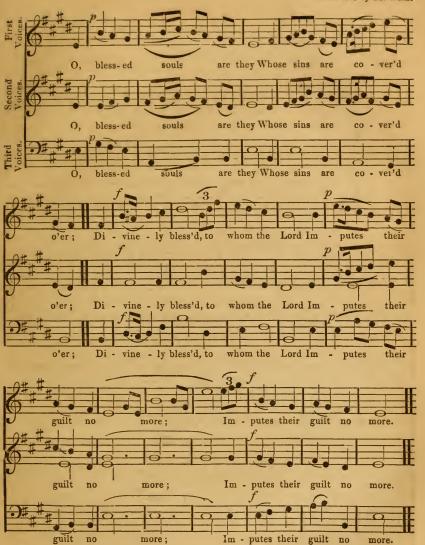


Sweet fields beyond the swelling flood Stand dress'd in living green, So to the Jews old Canaan stood, While Jordan roll'd between.

Could we but climb where Moses stood,
And view the landscape o'er,
Not Jordan's stream, nor Death's cold flood,
Should fright us from the shore.

#### No. 30.-LOWELL.-s. M

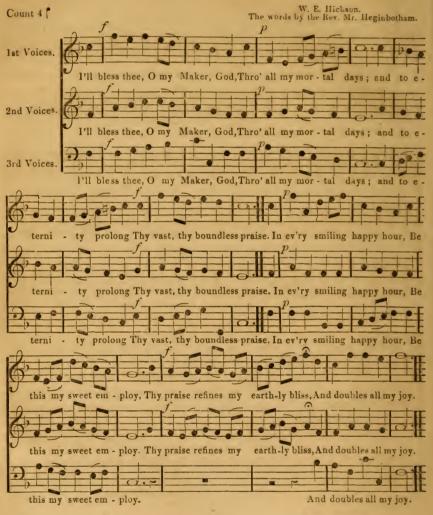
The words by Dr. Watts.



2."
They mourn their follies past,
And keep their lives with care;
Their lips and lives without deceit
Shall prove their faith sineere.

Let sinners learn to pray,
Let saints keep near the throne;
Our help in times of deep distress
Is found in God alone.

## No. 31.—FAIRSEAT.—c. M.



2

When gloomy care and keen distress Afflict my throbbing breast,

My tongue shall learn to speak thy praise.
And lull each pain to rest.

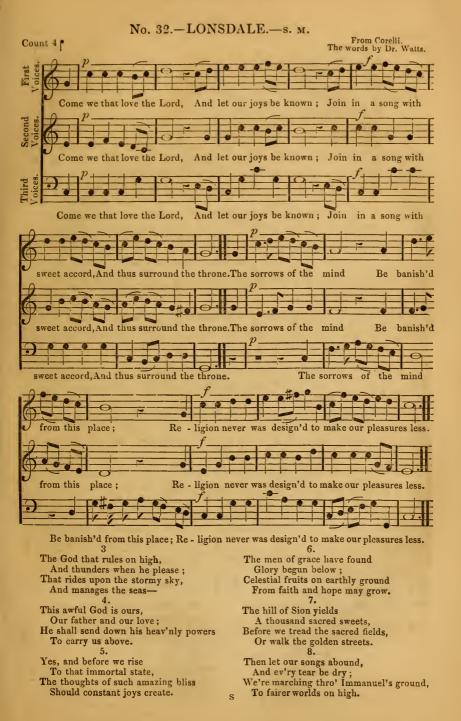
4.

Nor shall my tongue alone proclaim The honours of my God; My life, with all its active powers, Shall spread thy praise abroad. 5

And when these lips shall cease to move
When death shall close these eyes,
Then shall my soul to nobler heights
Of joy and transport rise.

6

Then shall her powers in endless strains Their grateful tribute pay; The theme demands an angel's tongue, And an eternal day.





Join to praise Immanuel's name.

Hallelujah !

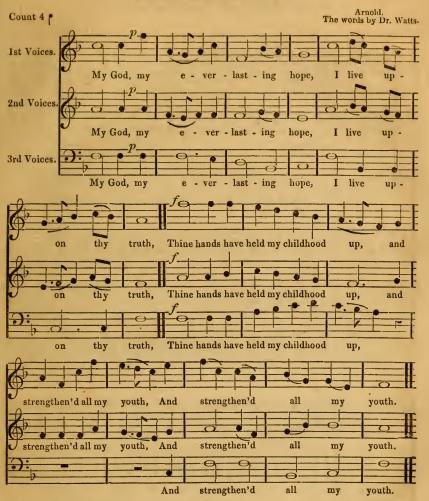
Glory to the bleeding Lamb !

Flow to us from Christ the Lord.

It is finish'd-

Saints, the dying words record

#### No. 34.—LYDIA.—c. M.



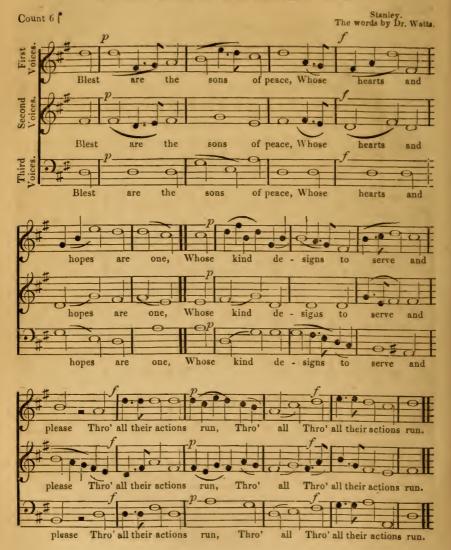
My flesh was fashion'd by thy power, With all these limbs of mine; And in the mercies of each hour Thy care and goodness shine.

3.
Still has my life new wonders seen,
Repeated every year;
The future as the past has been,
Thy love will make appear.

And when in age my strength declines, When hoary hairs arise, Thy goodness still, in endless signs, Shall still my heart surprise.

Then in my life I'll trust to thee, And dying still adore; And after death will sing thy praise, When time shall be no more.

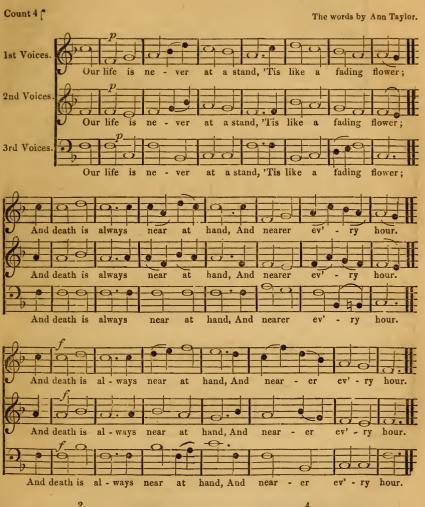
## No. 35.—SUTTON COLEFIELD.—s. M.



2.
Blest is the pious house
Where zeal and friendship meet:
Their songs of praise, their mingled vows,
Make their communion sweet.

3.
Thus on the heavenly hills
The saints are blest above,
Where joy like morning dew distils,
And all the air is love.

#### No. 36.—ARABIA.—c. M.



And those who now are young and gay,
Like roses in their bloom,
Will very soon be old and grey,
And wither in the tomb.

How often has the bell been toll'd—
The funeral mov'd along!
'Twas for the young as well as old,
The healthy and the strong.

4.
For now man's life does seldom last
To three-score years and ten;
And, Oh! the time will soon be past,
If we should live till then.

Then let us all prepare to die,
Since life will not endure;
And trust the Lord of earth and sky
To make his promise sure.



The above is usually sung to the following Psalm:-

All people that on earth do dwell,
Sing to the Lord with cheerful voice!
Him serve with fear, his praise forthtell,
Come ye before him and rejoice.

The Lord, ye know, is God indeed;
Without our aid he did us make;
We are his flock, he doth us feed,
And for his sheep he doth us take.

O enter then his gates with praise!
Approach with joy his courts unto!
Praise, laud, and bless his name always.
For it is seemly so to do.

For he, the Lord our God, is good, His mercy is for ever sure; His truth at all times firmly stood, And shall from age to age endure.

#### No. 38.—PERU.-L. M.



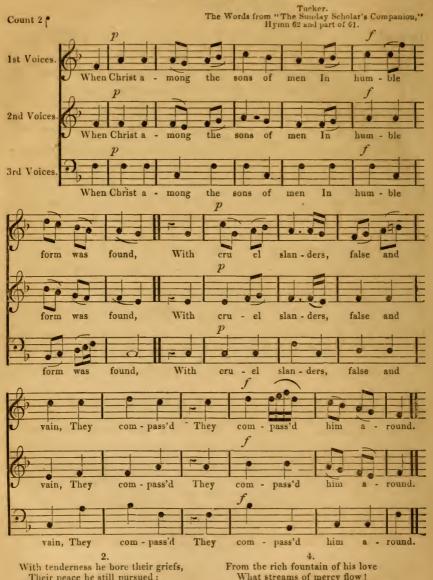
2. Sweet is the day of sacred rest, No mortal care shall seize my breast. O may my heart in tune be found, Like David's harp of solemn sound.

My heart shall triumph in my Lord,
And bless his works, and bless his word.
Thy works of grace how bright they shine ;
How deep thy counsels! how divine!

4.
And I shall share a glorious part,
When grace hath well refined my heart,
And fresh supplies of joy are shed,
Like holy oil to cheer my head.

Then I shall see, and hear, and know All I desired and wish'd below, And ev'ry power find sweet employ In an eternal world of joy.

## No. 39.—CONDESCENSION.—c. M.

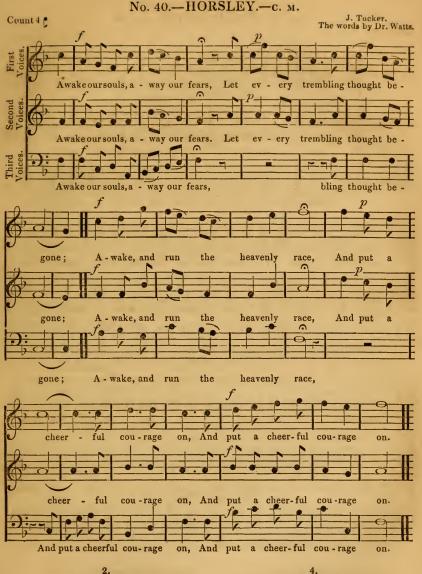


With tenderness he bore their griefs
Their peace he still pursued:
They render'd hatred for his love,
And evil for his good.

3.
Love to the fallen human race
Glow'd in his tender breast;
For man he yielded to disgrace.
Forsaken and distrest

From the rich fountain of his love What streams of mercy flow! "Father, forgive them," Jesus cries, "They know not what they do."

O may his meekness be my guide,
The pattern I pursue;
How can I bear revenge or pride
With Jesus in my view?

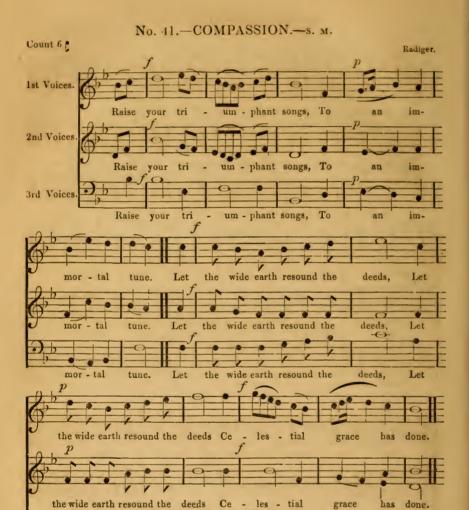


2.
True, 'tis a strait and thorny road,
And mortal spirits tire and faint;
But they forget the mighty God,
That feeds the strength of every saint.

The mighty God, whose matchless power
Is ever new, and ever young,
And firm endures, while endless years
Their everlasting circles run.

From thee, the ever-flowing spring,
Our souls shall drink a fresh supply:
While such as trust their native strength,
Shall melt away, and droop, and die.

Swift as an eagle cuts the air,
We'll mount aloft to thine abode;
On wings of love our souls shall fly,
Nor tire amidst the heavenly road.



2.
Sing how eternal love
Its chief beloved chose;
And bid him raise our wretched race
From their abyss of woes.

deeds

Ce

the wide earth resound the

3.
His hand no thunder bears,
Nor terror clothes his brow;
No bolts to drive our guilty souls
To fiercer flames below.

grace

has

done.

'Twas mercy fill'd the throne,
And wrath stood silent by,
When Christ was sent with pardon down
To rebels doom'd to die.

- les - tial

#### No. 42.—SUFFOLK.—c. M.



His mercy and his righteousness
Let heaven and earth proclaim,
His works of nature and of grace
Reveal his wondrous name.

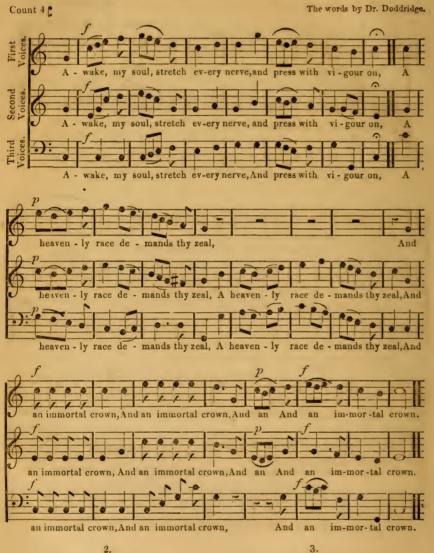
3.

His wisdom and almighty word
The heavenly arches spread;
And by the Spirit of the Lord
Their shining hosts were made.

4.
He bid the liquid waters flow
To their appointed deep;
The flowing seas their limits know,
And their own station keep.

Ye tenants of the spacious earth,
With fear before him stand;
He spake, and nature took its birth,
And rests on his command.

### No. 43.—HEPHZIBAH.—c. M.



A cloud of witnesses around Hold thee in full survey; Forget the steps already trod, And onward urge thy way.

'Tis God's all-animating voice That calls thee from on high; 'Tis his own hand presents the prize To thine aspiring eye.

That prize with peerless glories bright, Which shall new lustre boast, When victors' wreaths and monarchs' gems Shall blend in common dust.



2.
'Tis his almighty love,
His counsel, and his care,
Preserve us safe from sin and death,
And ev'ry hurtful snare.

3.
He will present our souls,
Unblemish'd and complete,
Before the glory of his face,
With joys divinely great.

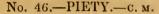
4.
Then all the chosen seed
Shall meet around the throne;
Shall bless the conduct of his grace,
And make his wonders known.

To our Redeemer, God,
Wisdom and power belongs,
Immortal crowns of majesty,
And everlasting songs.



Why should I complain of grief or distress,
Affliction or pain? he told me no less;
The heirs of salvation, I know by his word,
Through much tribulation must follow their
Lord.

Since all that I meet shall work for my good,
The bitter is sweet, the medicine is food;
Tho' painful at present, 'twill cease before long,
And then, O how pleasant the conqueror's song.





Thy name in hallow'd strains be sung, We join the solemn praise; To thy great name with heart and tong

To thy great name with heart and tongue Our cheerful homage raise.

Thy righteous, mild, and sov'reign reign Let ev'ry being own;

And in our minds, thy work divine, Erect thy gracious throne. Extend thy grace to ev'ry fault; Oh! let thy love forgive; Teach us divine forgiveness too, Nor let resentments live.

Where tempting snares bestrew the way,
Permit us not to tread;
Avert the threat'ning evil near,
From our unguarded head.

Thy sacred name we thus adore,
With humble, joyful mind;
And praise thy goodness, pow'r, and truth,
Fternal unconfin'd.

# No. 47.-WIGAN.-s. M.





2.

He leads me to the place
Where heavenly pasture grows,
Where living waters gently pass,
And full salvation flows.

If e'er I go astray,
He doth my soul reclaim,
And guides me in his own right way
For his most holy name.

While he affords his I cannot yield to Tho' I should walk dark shade, My Shepherd's with me

The bounties of thy love
With joy shall crown my days;
And while in thee I live and move,
My tongue shall speak thy praise.

# No. 48.—THE PASSING BELL.—L. M.



Only this frail and fleeting breath Preserves me from the jaws of death; Soon as it fails, at once I'm gone, And plunged into a world unknown.

Then leaving all I lov'd below,
To God's tribunal I must go;
Must hear the Judge pronounce my fate,
And fix my everlasting state.

But when the solemn bell I hear, If saved from guilt, I need not fear; Nor would the thought distressing be, "Perhaps it next may toll for me."

Rather my spirit would rejoice, And long and wish to hear thy voice; Glad when it bids me earth resign, Secure of heaven if thou art mine.



His covenant with the earth he keeps;
My tongue, his goodness sing;
Summer and winter know their time,
His harvest crowns the spring.

3.
Well pleased the toiling swains behold
The waving yellow crop;
With joy they bear the sheaves away,
And sow again in hope.

Thus teach me, gracious God, to sow
The seeds of righteousness;
Smile on my soul, and with thy beams
The ripening harvest bless.

Then in the last great harvest, I Shall reap a glorious crop: The harvest shall by far exceed What I have sown in hope.



Soon as the ev'ning shades prevail,
The moon takes up the wondrous tale;
And nightly to the list'ning earth
Repeats the glory of her birth.

Does his Creator's power display;

The work of an Almighty hand.

And publishes to ev'ry land

Whilst all the stars that round her burn, And all the planets in their turn, Confirm the tidings as they roll, And spread the truth from pole to pole. 5.

What though in solemn silence all
Move round the dark terrestrial ball?
What though no real voice nor sound
Amid their radiant orbs be found?

In reason's ear they all rejoice,
And utter forth a glorious voice;
For ever singing as they shine,
"The hand that made us is divine."





Here I raise my Ebenezer;
Hither by thy help I come;
And I hope, by thy good pleasure,
Safely to arrive at home.
Jesus sought me when a stranger,
Wandering from the fold of God;
He, to save my soul from danger,
Interposed his precious blood.

O to grace how great a debtor
Daily I'm constrained to be!
Let thy grace, Lord, like a fetter,
Bind my wandering heart to thee.
Prone to wander, Lord, I feel it,
Prone to leave the God I love;
Here 's my heart, Lord, take and seal it—
Seal it from thy courts above.



2.

My thoughts, before they are my own,
Are to my God distinctly known;
He knows the words I mean to speak,
Ere from my opening lips they break.

Amazing knowledge! vast and great!
What large extent! what lofty height!
My soul, with all the powers I boast,
Is in the boundless prospect lost.

# No. 53.—JUDE'S DOXOLOGY.—c. M.



When from the chambers of the East
His morning race begins,
He never tires, nor stops to rest,
But round the world he shines.

3.
So like the sun may I fulfil
The business of the day;
Begin my work betimes, and still
March on my heavenly way.

Give me, O Lord, thy early grace, Nor let my soul complain That the young morning of my days Has all been spent in vain. The following hymn may also be sung to the same air :-

#### GOODNESS OF GOD.

Lord, I would own thy tender care, And all thy love to me; The food I eat, the clothes I wear,

Are all bestow'd by thee.

'Tis thou preservest me from death And dangers every hour;

I cannot draw another breath Unless thou give me power.

Count 4 P

"Sunday Scholar's Companion"-Hymn &

My health, and friends, and parents dear, To me by God are given;

I have not any blessing here But what is sent from heaven.

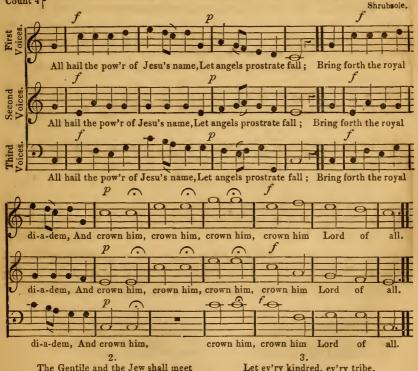
To love thee, and obey.

Such goodness, Lord, and constant care, My youth can ne'er repay; But may it be my daily prayer

It is usual also, at the close of Divine Service, frequently to sing the following lines to Jude's Doxology:-

> To Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, One God, whom we adore, Be glory, as it was, is now, And shall be evermore.

No. 54.—MILES'S LANE.—c. M.



The Gentile and the Jew shall meet At his celestial call,

Shall lay their honours at his feet, And crown him Lord of all.

Let ev'ry kindred, ev'ry tribe, On this terrestrial ball. To him all majesty ascribe, And crown him Lord of all.

4. Oh that with yonder sacred throng We at his feet may fall! We'll join the everlasting song, And crown him Lord of all.

#### No. 55.—EASTER HYMN.

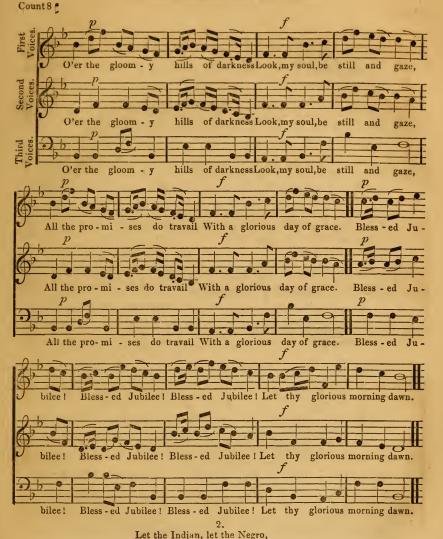


Love's redeeming work is done, Fought the fight, the battle won. Lo, the sun's eclipse is o'er, Now he sets in blood no more.

3.
Vain the stone, the watch, the seal,
Christ has burst the gates of hell;
Death in vain forbids his rise,
Christ has open'd paradise.

Hymns of praise then let us sing Unto Christ, our heav'nly King, Who endur'd the cross and grave, Sinners to redeem and save.

#### No. 56.—HELMSLEY.—8. 7. 4.



Let the rude Barbarian see

That divine and glorious conquest,
Once obtained on Calvary;
Let the gospel
Loud resound from pole to pole.
3.

Kingdoms wide that sit in darkness,
Grant them, Lord, the glorious light;
And from eastern coast to western,
May the morning chace the night;
And redemption,
Freely purchased, win the day.

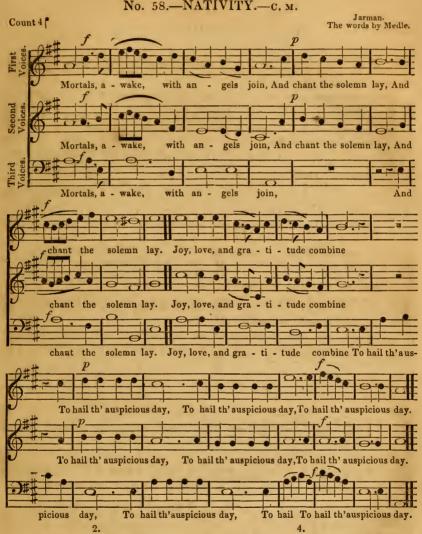


Then I can smile at Satan's rage,
And face a frowning world.

Then shall I ba

Should earth against my soul engage, And hellish darts be hurl'd, Let cares like a wild deluge come,
And storms of sorrow fall,
May I but safely reach my home,
My God, my heav'n, my all.

Then shall I bathe my weary soul In seas of heav'nly rest, And not a wave of trouble roll Across my peaceful breast.



In heav'n the rapturous song began, And sweet seraphic fire

Thro' all the shining legions ran, And strung and tun'd the lyre.

Swift thro' the vast expanse it flew,
And loud the echo roll'd;
The theme the song the joy was no

The theme, the song, the joy was new,
'Twas more than heaven could hold.

Hark! the cherubic armies shout,

And glory leads the song; Good-will and peace are heard throughout Th' harmonious heav'nly throng.

With joy the chorus we'll repeat, Glory to God on high!

Good-will and peace are now complete; Jesus was born to die.

Hail! Prince of life! for ever hail, Redeemer, Brother, Friend! Tho' earth, and time, and life should fail, Thy praise shall never end.

#### No. 59.—MONMOUTH.—L. M.



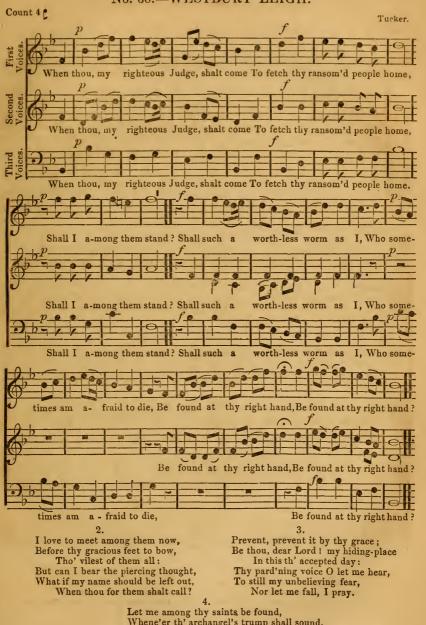
He form'd the stars, those heavenly flames, He counts their numbers, calls their names; His wisdom's vast, and knows no bound, A deep, where all our thoughts are drown'd.

Sing to the Lord, exalt him high,
Who spreads his clouds around the sky;
There he prepares the fruitful rain,
Nor lets the drops descend in vain.

He makes the grass the hills adorn, And clothes the smiling fields with corn; The beasts with food his hands supply, And the young ravens when they cry.

His saints are lovely in his sight, He views his children with delight; He sees their hope, he knows their fear, And loves his holy image there.

#### No. 60.—WESTBURY LEIGH.



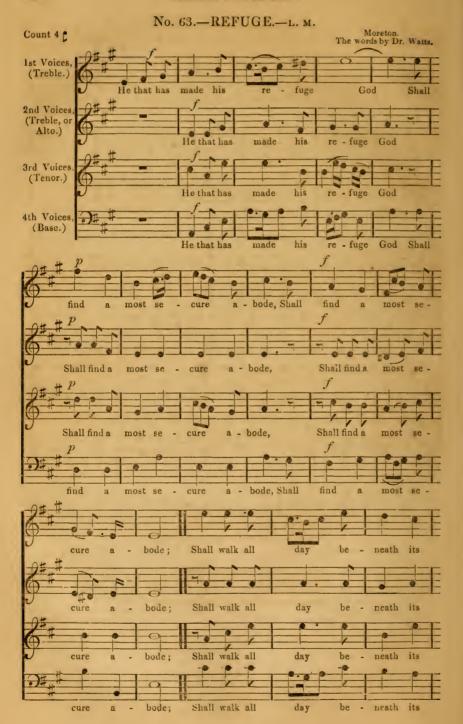
Let me among thy saints be found,
Whene'er th' archangel's trump shall sound,
To see thy smiling face:
Then loudest of the crowd I'll sing,
While heav'n's resounding mansions ring
With shouts of sov'reign grace.

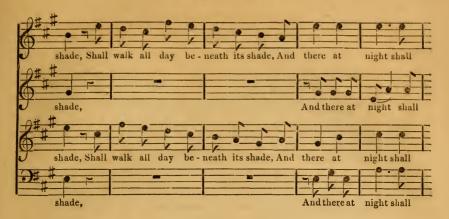
## No. 61.—NEW VICTORY, OR WIMPOLE.—c. M.

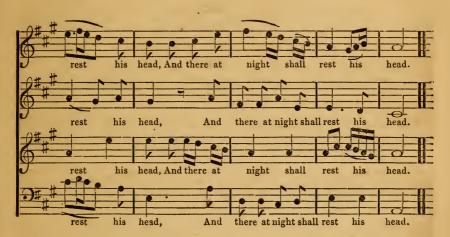


#### No. 62.—HALLELUJAH AMEN.—c. M.





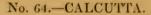




2.

Then will I say, "My God, thy pow'r Shall be my fortress and my tow'r; I, that am form'd of feeble dust, Make thine almighty arm my trust."

3.
Just as a hen protects her brood
From birds of prey, that seek their blood,
Under her feathers; so the Lord
Makes his own arm his people's guard.







Let the Indian, let the Negro,
Let the rude Barbarian see
That divine and glorious conquest
Once obtain'd on Calvary;
Let the Gospel
Loud resound from pole to pole.

His strokes are fewer than our crimes,

And lighter than our guilt.

Fly abroad, thou mighty Gospel,
Win and conquer, never cease;
May thy lasting wide dominion
Multiply and still increase:
Sway thy sceptre,
Saviour, all the world around.

Is such as tender parents feel;

He knows our feeble frame.



For thy compassions, Lord,
To endless years endure,
And children's children ever find
Thy words of promise sure.



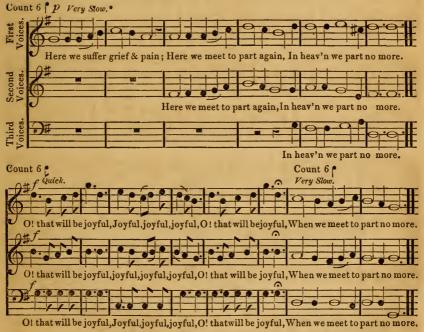
Thou sun, with dazzling rays,
And moon that rul'st the night,
Shine to your Maker's praise,
With stars of twinkling light;
His power declare,
Ye floods on high,
And clouds that fly
In empty air.
3.

The shining worlds above
In glorious order stand,
Or in swift courses move,
By his supreme command;
He spake the word,
And all their frame
From nothing came,
To praise the Lord.

Virgins and youths engage
To sound his praise divine,
While infancy and age
Their feebler voices join;
Wide as he reigns,
His name be sung
By ev'ry tongue,
In endless strains.
5.

The God that rules above;
He brings his people near,
And makes them taste his love;
While earth and sky
Attempt his praise,
His saints shall raise
His honours high.

# No. 67.—JOYFUL.



0

All who love the Lord below,
When they die to Heaven will go,
And sing with saints above.

O! that will be joyful! &c.

God shall wipe away all tears, Pain and sorrows, sighs and fears, For ever flee away.

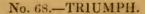
e away.

O! that will be joyful! &c.

None have seen, nor ear hath heard
What good things are there prepared.
For those who love the Lord.
O! that will be joyful! &c.

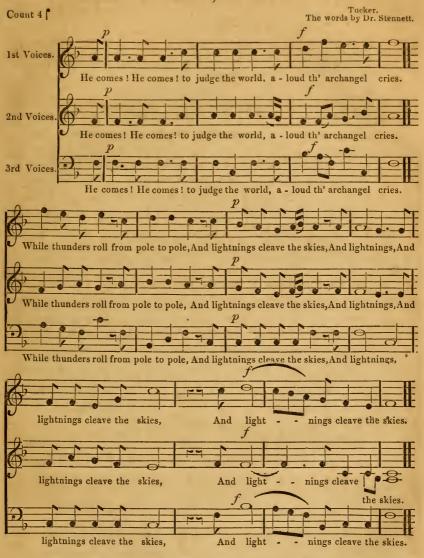
Let us all then watch and pray,
And prepare for that great day,
When Christ our Judge appears.
O! that will be joyful! &c.

<sup>.</sup> When this air is sung quick throughout it is converted into an exceedingly vulgar gig tune,





# No. 69.—TUCKER'S, OR LEIGH.—c. M.



2.
The affrighted nations hear the sound,
And upward lift their eyes;
The slumb'ring tenants of the ground

The slumb'ring tenants of the ground In living armies rise.

Amid the shouts of num'rous friends, Of hosts divinely bright, The Judge in solemn pomp descends, Arrayed in robes of white. 4.
So he ascends the judgment-seat,
And, at his dread command,
Myriads of creatures round his feet
In solemn silence stand.

Princes and peasants here expect
Their last, their righteous doom;
The men who dared his grace reject,
And they who dared presume



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